



APPENDICULÆ HISTORICÆ;

SHREDS OF HISTORY

Being on a Don.

BY

FRED. W. LUCAS.

“I have seen old houses where trees
have been planted, and have grown
so large that the gabled eaves in the
old house have passed them in the
growing, so that you might suppose pass them in

AND SOLD BY HENRY COLLIERS, 39, GREAT RUSSELL STREET,

London, W.C. MARCH.

1890.



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OR,

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Hung on a Horn.

BY

FRED. W. LUCAS.

The flowers I offer here are not my own;
Save a few weeds, they were by others grown:
Yet have I dared the gathered blooms to tie
For those who, else, might heedless pass them by.

London:

PRINTED FOR THE AUTHOR.

AND SOLD BY HENRY STEVENS & SON, 39, GREAT RUSSELL STREET,
Over against the British Museum.

MDCCXCII.

Jan 25-441

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To the large,
And ever varying, number
of my
Nephews and Nieces,
and to
Certain of their Contemporaries,
These dry bones of a dead past
I
Cheerfully dedicate.



DESCRIPTION OF THE POWDER HORN.

An ordinary bullock's horn, 14 inches in straight length; 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches measured round the longest curve; the point cut down to the dark horn below the yellow surface; the point pierced; the base stopped with a plain piece of dark wood. It bears upon the yellow surface, a map, cut with the point of a knife, embracing that scrap of the Continent of America now forming the greater part of the modern State of New York, with the addition of a small portion of the dominion of Canada containing Montreal.

The artist topographer was evidently a man of imperfect education, the spelling is faulty; the topography is generally correct, even to minute details, though there are two or three errors. His ingenuity, in compressing the map on to the inconveniently shaped surface of the horn, was great.

The horn is not dated. There is however internal evidence that it is not earlier than 1759 nor later than 1783. The probability seems to be that it was made during the Seven years' war, practically in 1759 or 1760. The bordered space, evidently intended for an inscription of the owner's name, is blank; this suggests that the horn was probably one of several of the same kind. The regimental snuff mull belonging to the 2nd (Queen's) Regiment, is made from a horn, bearing a similar, but not identical, map.

The following notes, which may perhaps appear somewhat too discursive, are intended to show, first, which were the European nations who claimed the ground shown on the map, and why; secondly, how England and France came into collision in that region; thirdly, where and how they fought, and with what results. In order to do this, it has been necessary to travel considerably out of the field of the map. An explanatory map showing the state of New York, with its surroundings, from a modern survey, with the prominent places referred to in the notes marked upon it, is added. The Treaty of Paris in 1763, is taken as the limit in time of the notes and a list of the books drawn upon in their preparation is appended.

A drawing of the horn is given as a Frontispiece, and a full-sized facsimile copy of the map upon it will be found at the end of these notes.

*“ This is the earth ” said they of old “ No land
But lies within our knowledge ; and, to show
There’s to be known, but only what we know,
And understood, but what we understand,
The River Ocean bounds on every hand
This little world where we are masters. Lo,
The gods, who dwell beyond the river’s flow
Scarcely more knowledge than ourselves command.”*

*Oh eyes, too blind to your own blindness ; minds
Too proud and strait one question to admit
Unsolved, or know for ignorance the tide ;
Still, stil’ your river round your circle winds.
But not in vain have others fronted it ;
For lo, what worlds upon the other side !*

W. M. L.

APPENDICULÆ HISTORICÆ;

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Hung on a Horn.

CHAPTER I.

DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION IN AMERICA TO THE END OF THE XVIth CENTURY.

WE have, most of us, been taught that America was discovered by Columbus A.D. 1492, and the honor of the discovery is generally accorded to him. There are, however, accounts, some of them supported by weighty evidence, others merely traditional, of earlier voyages to the transatlantic continent, and it may be worth while to glance at these before admitting the claim of the brave and learned Genoese navigator.

Plato, in his Dialogues *Critias* and *Timæus*, tells how Solon, when visiting Egypt about 570 B.C., received from the priests a circumstantial account of an island, larger than Libya (Africa) and Asia put together, lying across the sea west of Calpe and Abyla, the Pillars of Hercules, and how he learnt that in the division of the whole earth between the gods, this island fell to the lot of Poseidon; how there dwelt upon it "one of those men begotten from the ground in the beginning," named Euenor, and Leucippe his wife, whose daughter Cleito, Poseidon took to wife; how the island was populated and governed; what were its size, physical features, temples, cities, canals and public works; how, about 9,000 years before, its inhabitants had declared war against all the world inside the Pillars of Hercules, and were successfully opposed by the ancestors of the Greeks; and of the final catastrophe by which the island, with all on it, was submerged beneath the waves.

Whether the whole story was a pure invention of Plato to serve as a peg

whereon to hang certain moral reflections and instruction, or whether he had in his possession, as he alleges, documents written by Solon himself from which the account was drawn, has been much debated, but without any certain result. The account was taken seriously by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who quotes it in support of his theories, in his paper "On the possibility of a North-West Passage to Cathay." The notable geographer, Philip Cluver, also says of America: "*Jam inde antiquissimis temporibus cognitam fuisse Europaeis, ex Platone atque Diodoro Siculo probari potest.*" But a summary of the authorities and opinions on this subject will be found in the articles "Atlanticum Mare" and "Atlantis" in Dr. Smith's Dictionary of Greek and Roman Geography.

The supposed voyages of the Phoenicians and Carthaginians to America, can only be considered as founded upon theories unsupported by reliable evidence. If it is necessary to assume that the New World must have been peopled from the old, it is most probable that the immigrants first arrived from Asia, either by way of the Aleutian Islands, which form a long-linked chain from Kamschatka to Alaska, or by crossing Behring's Straits.

After a long interval we come to the passages in the *Heimskringla*, a Saga written in Icelandie by Snorre Sturlason, and the *Saga of King Olaf Trygveson*, telling of the voyage of Biarne Heriulfsen, A.D. 986, and Leif Eiriksen, A.D. 1000, and of the Scandinavian settlements in Helluland (Newfoundland); Markland (Nova Scotia); Vinland (Massachusetts); Huitramannaland (Virginia and North Carolina); and at Kjalarne (Cape Cod)*; and to the stories derived from other sources, of the Bishop Eric, A.D. 1101, and of Icelandie priests, A.D. 1285, to Vinland, and of a Scandinavian voyage from Greenland to Markland, A.D. 1347. There is no doubt that, though the passages in the *Heimskringla* are interpolated and not written by Snorre, they were actually in writing as early as 1387-1395, the date of the "*Flateyar Annall*" in which they appear, *i.e.* nearly a century before Columbus visited Iceland in search of nautical information, with a view to the voyage which he made in 1492.

The supposed discovery of Huitramannaland by Irishmen before A.D. 1000, rests upon very slender foundations, viz., reports of the Skraelinger (Esquimaux) to the Northmen in Vinland, and philological speculations.

* Helluland—Stone-land; Markland—Woodland; Vinland—Wineland; Huitramannaland—Land of the white men; Kjalarne—Keelness, or Cape Keel.

We now come to a cloudy account of the formation of a colony on the Atlantic Coast of America by Madoc Guyneth, a Welsh adventurer, in 1170. On the death of his father Owen Guyneth, King of North Wales, Madoc, disgusted by the selfishness of his brothers, took ship and put to sea, in search of profitable adventure, and leaving the coast of Ireland far north, came to an unknown land where he saw many strange things, and on his return to Wales, induced many men and women to emigrate with him to the "fair and large country" which "he had seen without inhabitants." This account obtained at one time some credence. In a curious little book called "Atlas Minimus by John Seller, Hydrographer to the King and sold at his 'house at the Hermitage in Wapping,'" the following text appears upon the general map of America :

"America is divided into two great Peninsulas, the Northernmost is "Mexicana, and the Southernmost is Peruana. The first is divided into "Severall Provinces, the principlall of which doth Homage to Great Britain's "Monarch, this Part was to the Honour of our Nation first discovered by "Madoc, Son to Owen Guined, and afterward by Sebastin Cabot at the "charge of King Henry the 7th." The book is not dated, but the title bears the monogram of Charles II., and, in the copy before us, is a MS. date 1684.

The claim of Madoc is now generally forgotten, and Humboldt says of it, "The deepest obscurity still shrouds everything connected with the "voyage of the Gaelic Chief Madoc."

The voyages of the brothers Vivaldi, who started to reach India by way of the Atlantic were directed not, as has been alleged, towards the west, but south and east round the African coast.

Next we find the story (drawn from the travels of the Venetian brothers Nicolo and Antonio Zeno) of the Frisland (Iceland) fisherman, who, in the XIVth century, spent thirteen years in a cannibal country, supposed to have been America, and only saved himself from being eaten, as most of his companions were, by teaching the natives to catch fish in large quantities, with nets. There is abundant evidence that the inhabitants of North America were, even in the XVIIIth century, cannibals. One principal result of the voyages of the brothers Zeni was the production of a very incorrect map, which served to mislead and confuse navigators 200 years later.

In 1431 Gonçalo Velho Cabral was sent by Don Henry (the navigator)

son of John I. of Portugal, to explore the Atlantic in search of a western land, but he got no further than the Azores. In 1463 Joao Vas Cortereal, a Portuguese, is fabled to have discovered Newfoundland, but though the story found credence for a time, its authenticity has been disproved. In 1476 Jean Szkolny, a Pole, in the service of Christian II. is said to have passed Norway, Greenland, and the Frisland of the Zeni, and to have reached the coasts of Labrador, but there are circumstances which render this account more than doubtful, and it is unsupported.

There is also a class of stories of which the following is a type. Garcillasso de la Vega, writing in 1609, relates circumstantially how, about the year 1484, Alonzo Sanchez de Huelva, a famous pilot, who traded from Spain to the Canary Islands, thence to Madeira, and thence back to Spain, upon one of his customary voyages was driven westward by a gale and obliged to run before it for twenty-nine days; exhausted by exposure, and want of food and sleep, he and his companions found themselves, when at last the gale abated, near an island, which the narrator believed to have been that known later as San Domingo. There the involuntary explorers landed, took in wood and water, wrote up the log book, and then set sail for home. Of seventeen who sailed only five survived their hardships long enough to reach Terciera (Azores), and these lodged there in the house of the hospitable Columbus. In spite of his care, they all died, after having imparted to him all they had learnt on their voyage. "And this" says De la Vega "was the origin and beginning of the discovery of the New World."

Similar stories are told in the French interest. In 1488, Cousin, a sailor of Dieppe, was blown off the African Coast westward, until he saw the mouth of a great river. One of his crew named Pinzon, dismissed on his return for mutinous conduct during the voyage, went to Spain, told Columbus of the discovery and accompanied him on his voyage in 1492. A similar story is told of a French pilot of S. Jean de Luz, who is also said to have communicated his experiences to Columbus in whose house he died.

Charles IX. of France, in 1565, told the Spanish Ambassador that the coast of North America had been discovered by French subjects more than a hundred years before. There is no doubt that the Breton and Basque fishermen frequented the Newfoundland cod banks in the beginning of the XVIth century, and perhaps earlier.

These stories would be scarcely worth referring to, were it not that claims

of ownership by right of discovery, have in later times been partly based upon such. They conclude the list of more or less vague and mythical tales of discovery, and bring us to the firmer ground of the last decade of the XVth century.

The XIVth and XVth centuries were marked by a zeal among maritime nations for voyages of discovery in parts of the world then unknown. The riches of India, Persia, Cathay and Zipangu, had been disclosed by the adventurous travels of the Venetians Nicolo, Maffeo and Marco Polo in the XIIIth century. Their accounts had been confirmed by the glowing stories of Sir John Maundeville concerning what he had seen during his twenty-four years' wanderings, between 1322 and 1346, and by reports of Nicolo Conti's twenty-five years' travels in Asia before 1444. Enterprising people promised themselves great riches, as the reward of the risk of penetrating unknown seas and lands; but there were two formidable obstacles in the way of the successful prosecution of such enterprises, distinct, but closely connected.

The first was the backwardness of Europeans in the knowledge of nautical instruments. The use of the magnetic needle for the purposes of navigation is said to have been known to the Chinese as early as 1115 B.C., and it was certainly common in the far East, some centuries before it obtained in Europe. Humboldt thought it probable that we owe our knowledge of its directing powers to the Chinese, through the Arabs. He quotes the earliest mention of it in Christian Europe in a politico-satirical poem called "La Bible" by Guyot, of Provence, in 1190, and in the description of Palestine, by Jacobus, of Vitry, between 1204 and 1215. Its invention is generally ascribed to Flavia Gioja, of Amalfi, who first suspended the needle, about 1302.

The second obstacle was the superstition of the age, which restrained those most eager for light from venturing to improve their scientific knowledge. The properties of the magnet were known to and pointed out by Friar Bacon in the XIIIth century, but no one dared to use it lest he should be considered a magician; nor, had a captain been so bold as to accept that risk, would he have found sailors who would venture to sea under one who took for his guide such an apparently diabolical instrument. Aristotle had taught that the world was round, and it was orthodox to accept this fact because the Psalmist speaks of the round world. But to believe in Antipodes or in America, was heretical and damnable, for neither is mentioned

in Holy Writ. Then it was said that though it might be easy enough to sail into the other hemisphere, it would be impossible to get back again, because, in order to do so, it would be necessary to sail up hill, a feat which the most favoring gales would not enable a ship to perform. Saint Augustine was quoted in proof of the folly of seeking to sail out of the then known hemisphere.

“But as to the fable that there are Antipodes—that is to say, men on “the opposite side of the earth, where the sun rises when it sets to us—“that is on no ground credible.” And after saying that it is not from historical knowledge, but only from scientific conjecture, that this had been supposed possible, he adds, “For Scripture, which proves the truth of its “historical statements by the accomplishment of its prophecies, gives no false “information; and it is too absurd to say that some men might have taken ship “and traversed the whole wide ocean, and crossed from this side of the “world to the other, and that thus even the inhabitants of that distant “region are descended from the first man.”*

Lactantius, a theologian of the IVth century, gets even deeper into the mire. He writes, “Is it possible that men can be so absurd as to believe “that the plants and trees on the other side of the earth hang downward, “and that men there have their feet higher than their heads? If you ask “of them how they defend these monstrosities, how things do not fall away “from the earth on that side, they reply that the nature of things is such “that heavy bodies tend toward the centre, like the spokes of a wheel, while “light bodies, as clouds, smoke, fire, tend from the centre. *Now, I am really at a loss what to say to those who, when they have once gone wrong, steadily persevere in their folly and defend one absurd opinion by another.*”†

“Oh, wad some power the gittie gie us,
To see ourselves as ithers see us.”

Columbus, and others in that time, had to contend against such foolish notions as these, and as the arguments used were mainly theological, it follows that reason and common sense were not admitted to answer them. We are better informed now, but yet, 400 years after Columbus, the dark

* *De Civitate Dei.*, Lib. XVI., Cap. IX.

† *Div. Institutiones*, Lib. III.

cloud of superstition, born of ignorance and fostered by priestcraft, cannot even now have been altogether dispelled, while cultivated and well-meaning persons show the weakness of their own faith, by persisting that science is a foe to religion.

The compass card, contrived by Flavia Gioja, was tolerably effective; the secret of its construction was fairly well kept by the Italians for some fifty years, but, from that time, the magnet gradually grew into favour with European navigators, and its assistance emboldened them to venture further from land. Besides the chart and the compass, an instrument was needed to enable the sailor to find his position; and it remained for King John II. of Portugal, a liberal patron of voyages of discovery, to originate the adaptation of the astrolabe (an invention worked out by Martin Behaim, in 1484), which served this purpose. It was improved upon by Davis's backstaff or quadrant a century later, and has now been altogether superseded by the quadrant and sextant.

In 1487, under the auspices of King John of Portugal, Bartolomeo Diaz achieved a notable nautical triumph by reaching the Cape of Good Hope, which on account of his stormy experiences thereabouts, he named "Cabo Tormentoso." His more enlightened Royal Patron re-named it "Cabo de Boa Esperanca."

While the spirit of exploration was abroad, there was born in Genoa, in 1435, Christopher Columbus, son of a woolecomber. He went to sea at the age of fourteen, married Felipa, daughter of Bartolomeo Moñis de Perestrello, a distinguished mariner, and took seriously and enthusiastically to a seafaring life. Not content to be a mere sailor, he diligently collected, both from oral and written sources, all the information he could find bearing upon the practice of his chosen profession. He sailed to all places then accessible, and talked with learned people, layman and ecclesiastic, Latins, Greeks, Indians, Moors, and many others of different nations, who, he thought, could increase his knowledge. He was skilful in navigation, astronomy, geometry and mathematics, and was a good cartographer. Instructed in these subjects, and fired by the measure of success of Diaz in his endeavour to find a sea route to India round the southern point of Africa (an endeavour in which Vasco Da Gama succeeded in 1497), Columbus determined to carry out his own idea of finding a shorter sea route by sailing westward across "La Mer Tenebreuse." He said, "The Lord has sensibly opened my mind in order

“that I may sail from here to the Indies, and has made me extremely anxious to do so.” He was misled, by some miscalculations of Marinus (a Greek geographer, A.D. 150), to the conclusion, that the distance between the Cape Verd Islands and the eastern limits of India, could not be more than one-third of the great circumference of the globe. He observed the smallest circumstances affecting his theory, and noted such things as pieces of wood curiously carved, not with knives, and large canes picked up far out in the Atlantic, which he believed had come from India. Indeed, by education, inclination, and by virtue of his indomitable courage and perseverance, he was well fitted for his self-imposed task.

Encouraged by the active interest shown by King John II. of Portugal in voyages of discovery, Columbus applied to that monarch to fit out an expedition to enable him to test the truth of his belief. The King declined, but availed himself of the information he was able to extract from Columbus as to his scheme, to send a secret expedition of his own, which failed; Columbus then sent his brother Bartolomeo to Henry VII. of England, but without success. Meanwhile Columbus applied in person to Ferdinand and Isabella of Castile, and, after many rebuffs, succeeded in gaining the ear of the Queen, and his object. He sailed from Palos, on Friday, August 3rd, 1492. His fleet consisted of his ship the Santa Maria, and two caravels La Pinta and La Nina, commanded by the brothers Martin and Vicente Pinzon. In spite of the disaffection of the crews, who wanted to turn back, and even threatened to throw the admiral overboard when he refused, he held on, and on Friday, October 12th, o.s. sighted an island which he named San Salvador. Had he not yielded to the advice of Vicente Pinzon (who was influenced by the sight of a flight of parrots), and altered his course to the South-west, Columbus would have reached the coast of Florida, and discovered the continent on his first voyage. There has been much difference of opinion as to the identity of the island first seen. It was one of the Lucayos, called by the natives Guanahani, which De la Vega calls Guantianico. Muñoz believed it to be Watling Island; Navarette, Grand Turk Island; Humboldt and Irving, Cat Island; and the last opinion was until recently generally accepted, but further enquiry has shown that it must have been Watling Island, which has now received the official name of San Salvador.

After visiting some small islands, Columbus reached Cuba on the 28th October, and believing it to be part of the continent of Asia, actually sent an

embassy from his ships to the Grand Khan of Cathay (China) at Guisay, directing his emissaries to return in six days. Though they failed to find the Khan, or the city, they made a most important discovery, thus described by Las Casas.

“They met upon their journey great numbers of people of both sexes; “the men always with a firebrand in their hands and certain herbs for “smoking. These were dry and were placed in a dry leaf after the manner “of those paper tubes which the boys in Spain use at Whitsuntide. Lighting “one end, they drew the smoke by sucking at the other. This causes “drowsiness, and a kind of intoxication, and, according to the statement of “the natives, relieves them from the feeling of fatigue. These tubes they “call by the name of tabacos.”

On the 16th January, 1493, Columbus, having seen nothing but islands, set sail for Spain, made the Azores on the 16th February and reached the Tagus on March 4th. Thus it will be seen that on his first voyage Columbus did not discover the Continent of America. It was not until the 1st August, 1498, when on his third voyage, that he saw the Continent, and named the land “Gracia,” now called Venezuela. But it was he who led the way for later explorers, and, though not the actual discoverer, deserves all credit for the boldness which solved the problem of the western sea, and made the discovery of the Continent certain.

No sooner had Columbus established the fact that there was transatlantic territory, than other European Powers, besides Spain, began to scramble for a share of the plunder, and England, France and Portugal quickly followed, Sweden and the Netherlands somewhat later.

John Cabot, a Venetian merchant residing in Bristol, with his son Sebastian, who was born in that city, first, among contemporary voyagers, found the Continent of America. He obtained a patent from Henry VII. of England, which commissioned him and his three sons, Lodovico, Sebastiano and Sanctus, his and their heirs and deputies, to sail with five ships of any burden, under the banners, flags and ensigns of England, at their own proper expense and charges to all parts, regions and gulfs of the eastern, western and northern seas, in order to seek, discover and explore whatever islands, countries, regions or provinces of the heathen and of the infidels, in whatever part of the world they were situate, which were then unknown to all Christians; to affix the banners of England in any city, island, or continent,

that they might find; and, as vassals of the English Crown, to possess and occupy the territories that might be discovered. They were strictly bound to land at the port of Bristol, and to pay to the King one-fifth of the profits of their voyages.

Armed with this authority, John Cabot, with his son Sebastian, in the spring of 1497, sailed from Bristol with two ships. He took a northwesterly course, and on the 24th June (Saint John's day) saw land, which he called "Prima Tierra Vista," and a large island, which he called "Sant Joan." On the map known as the Cabot map of 1544, the land marked "Tierra Prima Vista" seems to correspond with Nova Scotia, and the "Y^a de S. Juan," with Cape Breton Island, (about 48° N. Lat.) He explored the coast for 300 leagues. Bancroft says Cabot first saw the coast of Labrador in Lat. 56° N., about.

In the following year, having obtained a fresh patent, John Cabot sailed again with five ships provisioned for a year, but little or nothing is known of this voyage, unless it was the same as the one next mentioned. Sebastian Cabot sailed in 1498 or 1499, and explored the coast and islands from Lat. 58° north to Lat. 38° north (that of Maryland), or perhaps as far south as 25° N. Lat. (Florida), and took possession of the whole country in the name of England. It was upon the voyages of the Cabots that the claims of England to North America were founded.

By letters patent dated 10th April, 1495, Ferdinand and Isabella permitted any of their subjects to make voyages of discovery, and trade in the Indies. Columbus was in Hispaniola (Hayti) at the time, but, in consequence of his protest on his return in 1496, the new letters patent were revoked (2nd April, 1497), in so far as they prejudiced any privileges granted to him or his heirs.

It is necessary to notice here the apocryphal voyage of Amerigo Vespucci, which has been the subject of much discussion among geographical historians. Vespucci was a Florentine, who undoubtedly accompanied Hojeda in his voyage in 1499. He was a skilled navigator, but was never employed on any voyage except in a subordinate position. The sole evidence of his alleged voyage is a letter written by him and dated 4th September, 1504. In it he says that, having been commissioned by the King and Queen of Spain to assist in a voyage of discovery, he sailed from Cadiz on the 10th May, 1497, and returned to that port on the 15th October, 1498 (Valori). *Hylaeomylus*

gives the date as the 18th October, 1499. He describes the land of Lariab and its natives; this land has been identified with Venezuela, which he afterwards visited. There is no other contemporary record of his voyage; neither Gomara nor Oviedo, the oldest Spanish historians, nor Herrera, report this voyage, nor do Martyr or Benzoni, both Vespucci's countrymen, and the former a contemporary writer, recognise it. Herrera accuses Vespucci of deliberately garbling his story and confusing the dates, in order to gain the credit of being the discoverer of the American Continent; Robertson sums up against him, and Humboldt, in his *Examen Critique*, Vol. IV., may be said to have demolished the claim. If Vespucci's account had been true, he would have seen Venezuela eighteen days before the Cabots saw the coast of North America, and nearly fourteen months before Columbus saw the coast of Paria. Vespucci still has his adherents, but the only question seems to be whether he lied by design or by mistake. A letter written by Columbus in 1505, speaks in high terms of him, and Las Casas, who was a friend of both Vespucci and Columbus, thinks that Vespucci made a genuine error in his dates. Humboldt fully acquits Vespucci of all dishonest intention, either in falsifying the dates, or in procuring his name to be given to America.

The one thing certain about him is that his name, whether by his connivance or not, was given to the newly found continent. Vespucci's accounts of the discovery were the first to be published. The name of America was suggested by the geographer Waldseemuller (Martinus Hylacomylus), of Freiburg, in Breisgau, in his "*Cosmographiae Introductio, insuper quatuor Ameriei Vespucci Navigationes*," published at St. Dié, in 1507.

A similar confusion as to date exists with regard to the second alleged voyage of Vespucci, said to have commenced in May, 1489 (Hylacomylus), or 1499 (Valori and Ricciardi). The dates of Hylacomylus are clearly wrong, otherwise the second voyage would have begun five months before the first was finished.

Both Vespucci and Columbus certainly, and Cabot probably, died in the belief that America was part of Asia, and for many years western voyages were made with the object of finding a direct western passage to China and India, the ostensible primary motive being to persuade the Asiatic barbarians to embrace Christianity.

With reference to the subsequent action of Spain and Portugal in

America it should be mentioned that on the 4th May, 1493, that most infamous of Popes and of men, Alexander VI., signed a bull establishing for all eternity the line of demarcation between the Spanish and Portuguese possessions 100 leagues west of the Azores; but on the 7th June, 1494, the line was settled at 370 leagues ($17\frac{1}{2}$ to an equatorial degree) west of the Cape Verd Islands.* This Papal gift of all the land in the world not then subject to Christian powers to Spain and Portugal, was the cause of various squabbles between them, but has been ignored by the other European Powers.

In 1500, Emmanuel of Portugal, regretting that his predecessor had not taken Columbus by the hand, despatched Gaspard Cortereal on a voyage on his behalf. Cortereal reached Labrador, freighted his ships with natives, whom he sold as slaves on his return to Portugal. He soon after sailed westward again, and was, happily, never heard of more. "The name of Labrador," says Bancroft, "transferred to a more northern coast, is, probably, a 'memorial of his crime, and is, perhaps, the only permanent trace of Portuguese adventure within the limits of North America."

We have seen that before the end of the XVth or during the first few years of the XVIth century, at the latest, the fishermen of Brittany and Normandy had reached the Newfoundland Codbanks, and those fishing grounds are to this day the subject of differences between France and England, and England and the United States, which, at the present time seem almost to threaten England with the loss of one of her colonies. The interest which France retains in these fisheries is all that remains to her of her former possessions in North America.

According to a French account quoted by Ramusio, Jean Denis, of Honfleur, a private adventurer, explored the Gulf of S. Lawrence in 1506. In

* There is some question as to the identity of the map on which the Pope is said to have drawn the first line of demarcation. Coote says it is lost; Winsor that it was a "mappemonde by Jaume Ferrer," now lost; the description published for the Indian and Colonial Exhibition, 1887, of the Ribero Map 1529, says it was the "1st Iorignian" Map, begun in 1494 and finished in 1529, but this seems to be a mere assumption, for which no grounds are given. The earliest known map on which the second line (drawn after the repudiation of the first by King John of Portugal) appears, is the Cantino Map of 1502, and it is also shown on the Ribero Map. The degrees of longitude on the latter map are reckoned from this line.

The zero point for meridians of longitude in most maps of the 17th Century, e.g. Speed's Atlas, and Cluver's Geography, was on one of the Azores. For some time each nation adopted a point within its own territory, but at the International Geodetic Conference held at Rome in 1884, all the nations there represented, except France and Brazil, agreed on Greenwich as a common zero point.

1508, La Pensée, of Dieppe, Captain Thomas Aubert, and another ship commanded by Giovanni Verrazzano, ascended the S. Lawrence for a distance of 80 leagues. In 1518, the Baron de Léry, failed in an attempt to found a settlement on Sable Island, but left cattle there, which increased and multiplied upon it for the ultimate benefit of others.

In 1523, Francis I of France, in spite of the efforts of John III. of Portugal, to hinder him, despatched the same Giovanni Verrazzano, to explore on his behalf. Verrazzano, after being once driven back by tempest, sailed from Dieppe in the beginning of 1524, with a single ship, the Dauphine. He made the coast of Carolina, a little north of Cape Fear, on the 10th March, 1524, o.s., and from that point coasted leisurely northwards as far as Newfoundland, exploring on his way the Bay of New York and the mouth of the Hudson River, which he called La Grande Riviere. Of Verrazzano, Ramusio asserts that on a subsequent voyage he was killed and eaten by savages, but later and more authentic witnesses show that he was hanged at Puerto del Pico in 1527, as a pirate, as Drake, Hawkins, Cavendish, and many voyagers of those and later times, might have been with equal justice.

In 1534, Francis I., the gilt having been rubbed off him on the field of Pavia, required the urgent encouragement of Philip Chabot, lord of Brion, to induce him to renew his transatlantic enterprise. Under his auspices, Jacques Cartier, of S. Malo, still seeking not a new continent, but India or Cathay, sailed on the 20th April, 1534, and went up the Gulf of S. Lawrence as far as Anticosti. Winter and want of provisions drove him home again, with two young Indians, treacherously snared, as the fruits of his enterprise. The most Christian king, in defiance of the papal bull which had given all North America to the Spaniards, sent Cartier off again. He sailed with three vessels on the 19th May, 1535, and ascended the S. Lawrence to the Indian island village of Hochelaga. The Indians, with an instinctive appreciation of the French character, did their best to deter him by stories of demons and devils, and succeeded in frightening the explorer's companions. But Cartier, made of sterner stuff, asserted that no Indian devil could hurt those who believed in Christ, and reached his goal. The site of this Hochelaga is probably indicated by remains discovered below Sherbrooke Street and between Mansfield and Metcalf Streets in modern Montreal. The modern Hochelaga, a mere memorial name, is on the main land east of the

S. Lawrence. Cartier ascended the hill upon the island and called it Montreal, which name it still bears, and claimed the region for France. He wintered near Quebec, and returned to S. Malo in July, 1536.

In 1541 Jean François de la Roque, Sieur de Roberval, a nobleman of Picardy, was appointed by Francis I. "Lord of Norumbega, Viceroy and "Lieutenant-General in Canada, Hochelaga, Saguenay, Newfoundland, Belle "Isle, Carpunt, Labrador, the Great Bay, and Baccalaos," and Cartier was made his Captain-General. The king, writing of this expedition, speaks of "the lands of Canada and Hochelaga, which form the extremity of Asia "towards the west." Cartier sailed from S. Malo, in advance of Roberval, on the 23rd May, 1541, reached Cap Rouge, a little below Quebec, built two forts and called the place "Charlesbourg Royal." Leaving the Vicomte de Beaupré in command, Cartier went up the river above Hochelaga, and returning late in the autumn wintered at Charlesbourg. Roberval not arriving, Cartier broke up the colony and sailed for France in June, 1542. Roberval had sailed from S. Malo on the 16th April in that year, and was considerably disturbed at meeting Cartier in the harbour of S. John, homeward bound. In defiance of commands to turn back, Cartier gave Roberval the slip in the night and returned to France. Roberval went on and reached Cap Rouge, where he began a settlement which he called France-Roy. Under his severe and arbitrary rule the colony soon went to pieces, and, probably in 1543, the King sent Cartier to bring Roberval home again. No permanent settlement was then effected.

In 1541 Ferdinand de Soto, a former governor of Cuba, a friend and companion of Pizarro, in search of gold and glory, chanced upon the Mississippi. The natives were everywhere hostile. De Soto, after posing for a while as a divinity, died like other mortals, and his body was sunk secretly by night, in midstream, by his followers, to conceal the fact of his death from the Indians. The remnant of his party was glad to escape from this disastrous expedition, but only about one-third of those who started reached the River Panuco. Thus to Spain belongs the credit of the discovery of the Father of Waters.

During the early years of the XVIth century Spain had established a firm footing in Mexico, through the savage conquest of that region, by Hernando Cortes. She had attempted to do the same in Florida, and Ponce de Leon (1513), Ayllon (1520), Gomez (1525), Narvaez (1526), de

Soto (1541), las Bazares (1550), and Villafañe (1551) had in turn attempted to conquer and colonise, and failed.

In 1562 Jean Ribaut, a Frenchman, built Charles Fort on the River Chanonceau, probably the modern Archers Creek, as the nucleus of a Huguenot colony, but the enterprise ended in disaster in the following year. In 1564 René de Laudonnière, assisted by Coligny, with a larger following, ascended the River of May and built Fort Caroline. In consequence of double-dealing with the Indians, and improvident neglect of the cultivation of the soil, the little colony was soon reduced to desperate straits, and was only relieved from actual starvation by the chance arrival of Sir John Hawkins, who, after a successful slaving voyage, put into the River of May for water. Sympathising with the French in their hatred of the Pope and his myrmidons, and of the Spaniards, he supplied the distressed colonists with provisions, and sold them a ship at their own price, viz., the cannon and other articles which they intended to abandon. But while the French waited for a fair wind, Jean Ribaut arrived with seven ships, 300 men and ample stores. This was on the 28th August, 1565. A week after came the unwelcome Spaniards under Pedro Menendez de Avilés. After a sea fight between the French and Spanish ships without any definite result, Menendez, not thinking himself strong enough to land in face of the French fort, coasted southward, and entering a creek, which he named San Augustin, fortified a native village there, and thus began S. Augustine, the oldest town in the United States.

Menendez, "bigotry incarnate," as Parkman calls the typical Spaniard of the XVIth century, had come to that country by command of Philip II., of Spain, as he told the French at their first encounter, "to hang and behead all Lutherans whom I shall find by land or sea, and these commands I shall fulfil, as you will see." He kept his word. With vile treachery, and the foulest cruelty, he massacred the unhappy French in cold blood, to the number of some hundreds, and took possession of Fort Caroline, which he re-named San Mateo. This monster was rewarded by his King for his crimes, and, while Providence was napping, died in his bed. The bigot, Charles IX., and his mother, Papists first and French afterwards, made but a feeble and insincere protest, and the crime would have gone unavenged but for a gallant Frenchman, Dominique de Gourgues, who, at his own cost and risk, undertook the task of vengeance, which he performed very

thoroughly and satisfactorily. These events were not without their effect on the destinies of North America. The massacre of the Huguenot colonists excited great indignation in Protestant England, and directed attention to the scene of the tragedy, and amongst those who were deeply moved was one Walter Raleigh. It was not in Florida, however, that France was to make her impression in America.

During the second half of the XVIth century, a notable group of Englishmen sailed the western seas and paid unwelcome visits to the territories claimed by Spain across the Atlantic. Mariners and soldiers too, patriots and pirates, brave, cruel and unscrupulous; their religion, love of Queen and country, and hatred of the Spaniard and the Jesuit, they sought Spanish blood and Spanish gold wherever it could be found, harrying and hunting the haughty Don, all over the world. The most notable among them were Sir John Hawkins, a native of Devonshire, the English originator and organizer of the African slave trade, a brave, hard, ruthless man; Sir Francis Drake, his relative, a native of Tavistock; Sir Martin Frobisher, born near Doncaster, these three all had commands in the fight with the Spanish Armada. Then there were Sir Walter Raleigh, and his half brothers, John and Humphrey Gilbert, John Davis, Thomas Cavendish, and Sir Richard Grenville. All these contributed, more or less, to the knowledge of the American sea and coasts.

But up to the end of the XVIth century, France and Spain had been beforehand with England in attempts to conquer and colonise North America. The endeavours of Cabot, in 1498, and of Frobisher 80 years later, so entirely failed as to be scarcely worth notice. It was not till 1579 that a serious attempt to found a colony was made; in that year Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent from Queen Elizabeth, and, probably accompanied by Sir Walter Raleigh, shortly afterwards sailed for Newfoundland. But mutiny, wreck and disaster turned him back. He made a second equally unsuccessful attempt four years later, and, on a dark and stormy night in 1583, the brave and pious soldier, the astute and learned navigator, with the faithful words "We are as neare to heaven by sea as by land" upon his lips, sank with his little bark "The Squirrel," of 10 tons only, leaving his comrades in "The Hind" to bear home the mournful tale.

Undismayed by this tragedy, Sir Walter Raleigh in the following year, having obtained a royal patent, despatched an expedition to explore the coast

of North Carolina. Raleigh probably accompanied this himself. In 1585, a fleet, furnished by him, and commanded by Sir Richard Grenville, sailed with a company to found a colony at Roanoke, Virginia. Richard Lane was left as governor, but he was not suited to the task, and in 1586 the colonists were fain to beg a passage home of Sir Francis Drake, who had called to see how his friend's enterprise was prospering. A few days later, Grenville, with supplies and reinforcements, returned, to find the colony vanished. He left a force of fifteen men to hold the continent of North America for England. When a fresh expedition sent by Raleigh in 1587 reached Roanoke, nothing remained of the garrison but dry bones ; the Indians had exterminated it.

The new arrivals, under Governor John White, came with instructions to found the city of Raleigh on Chesapeake Bay, but the refusal of Fernando, the naval commander, to explore the coast, forced White to lay the foundations on the ill-omened Roanoke. There White's daughter, Eleanor Dare, bore the first child of English parents on the soil of the United States, Virginia Dare. Again troubles ensued, and the governor was persuaded to go home to press for reinforcements and supplies. His return to Roanoke was unfortunately delayed, the Armada threatened the mother country, and her sons could not be spared to succour the unhappy colonists. Five times afterwards did Raleigh, impoverished as he was, send expeditions to seek his colony, but Roanoke was a wilderness, and no traces of its English inhabitants were ever found. Disastrous as the results of Raleigh's attempts had been, they did not quench the desires which had been aroused in English hearts to possess North America.

Since the failure of the schemes of Cartier and Roberval, in 1541-2, no public support had been granted to French colonisation. Now, in 1598, the Marquis de la Roche agreed with the French King to colonise New France, in return for a monopoly of the trade and various titles, including Lieutenant-Governor of Canada, Hochelaga, Newfoundland, Labrador, and the adjacent countries. His colonists were the sweepings of the French gaols, and his enterprise ended in misery and failure.

The XVIth century had brought no profit either to England or to France in America. We shall see that during the XVIIth century both nations gained something like firm footing, and the States General of the Netherlands and Sweden, also ventured to invade the new world.

CHAPTER II.

SETTLEMENT.

AT the beginning of the XVIIth century, England, France, and Spain were each possessed with the idea that North America belonged by right to her; England basing her pretensions on the discoveries of the Cabots; France her's upon the frequentation of the Newfoundland codbanks by her fishermen, and on the explorations of Verrazzano and Cartier; and Spain her's upon the double title of the discoveries of Columbus, and the bull of Pope Alexander VI. By "Florida" the Spaniard meant the whole northern continent from the Gulf of Mexieo to the Arctic Seas; the name "New France," to the Frenchman, and "Virginia" to the Englishman, imported the same extent of country. The force of circumstances soon compelled these rival claimants to modify their ideas considerably.

The XVIth century had been a stormy one in Europe. "The malady of princes," had been raging, and the history-making sword had been busy writing its record in blood; Ravenna, Flodden, Pavia, Gravelines, Langside, and Lepanto, Zutphen and Ivry, were only a few of the battles that had been lost and won. Calais had been taken and the Spanish Armada destroyed.

In England, that magnificent ruffian Henry VIII., had defied the Pope and suppressed the monasteries (two good deeds which charity bids us recall), Bloody Mary had justified her name, and the Virgin Queen, with not too gentle hand, had upheld the honour of her country, and given it a leading place in Europe. In France, Francis of Angoulême had shone like a rocket and come down like the stick; the mean and superstitious Charles IX., and his fiendish mother, amongst other crimes too numerous to mention, had massacred the Huguenots, and Henry of Navarre, who began to give to his subjects something like peace and good government, had published the Edict of Nantes. In Spain the sun of Charles had risen, and set in the lurid night of the reign of the bigot Philip II., who brought his country well nigh to moral and material ruin. The Netherlands had passed through the purgatory of Spanish rule, under the invincible Alva, and the Inquisition. Under eight Popes, the holy office had dragged through blood and fire the

gospel of peace, and done in the name of Christ the work of devils. In Sweden Gustavus Vasa had freed his country from the Danish yoke, and left it in a sound and prosperous condition.

Yet, amid this tumult of war, and turmoil of religious hatred and persecution, the arts of peace had flourished too. In no one century will be found so long a list of notable names as in this XVIIth century. It saw Thomas More, Wyatt, Surrey, Spenser, Philip Sidney, Shakespeare, and Marlowe; Ariosto, Rabelais, Camoens, Montaigne and Cervantes; Erasmus, Tyndale, Luther, Cranmer, Loyola, Knox and Calvin; Copernicus, Galileo and Kepler; Leonardo da Vinci, Dürer, Michael Angelo, Titian, Raphael and Holbein; Cellini and Palissy, and many others whose names will endure as long as the world lasts. Never had men loved so well, hated so well, painted so well, or sung or fought so well, as during this period. The spring-tide of human greatness seemed at the flood.

With the beginning of the XVIIth century quieter times came. Still there were lingering wars, yet insignificant in their proportions when compared with those of the previous century. Many were impoverished by war or persecution; many, who knew no trade but war, were now fain to seek more peaceful employment. After the wild carouse of the passions it was necessary, both for nations and individuals, to sober down and look to domestic affairs.

Drake had drawn the teeth and pared the claws of Spain, and England was more at leisure to resume her schemes for trade and colonisation, in the east and in the west, in both of which regions France and the Netherlands were to be her rivals. The first charter was granted to the English East India Company by Queen Elizabeth in 1600.

In 1602, Bartholomew Gosnold, with Raleigh's concurrence sailed to the Bay of Massachusetts, and thence, south to Cape Cod, where he landed. "Cape Cod was the first spot in New England ever trod by Englishmen" (Bancroft). Gosnold built a fort on one of the Elizabeth Islands (Cuttyhunk), and did some trade with the natives on the mainland; but, in view of danger from the Indians, and want of provisions, determined not to winter there. Encouraged by Gosnold's favourable reports of the country, the merchants of Bristol, still supported by Raleigh, in the following year, fitted out an expedition under Martin Pring, which sailed a few days after Elizabeth's miserable and remorseful death, which occurred 24th March, 1603. Pring

made a successful voyage and explored the coasts of New Hampshire and Massachusetts. His confirmation of Gosnold's glowing accounts led to many other enterprises for discovery. Bartholomew Gilbert made a last and unavailing attempt to trace Raleigh's lost colony; the Earl of Southampton and Lord Arundel of Wardour sent George Waymouth, who explored the coast of Maine, and on his return succeeded in interesting Sir Ferdinand Gorges in the new field for money making.

The error of supposing America to be the eastern parts of Asia was then discovered, and its only traces now appear in the misnomers "Indians" still applied to the native races, and "West Indies" to the islands, of the New World. The hope of gathering great masses of gold, as Cortes had done, was passing away; the advantages of commerce over conquest and plunder, as a means of amassing wealth, had begun to be appreciated, and the two great motives of colonisation were now, the spread of the Christian religion and the extension of trade, to which was soon to be added a third, namely, a desire to escape from religious persecution.

In 1606, James I. of England, urged by Gorges and his friends, granted to a company of merchants of London, a charter empowering them to colonise North America from 34° to 38° N. Lat., and to a similar company of Plymouth merchants, like rights between 41° and 45° N. Lat., the intermediate region between 38° and 41° being open to competition of either company, under certain restrictions; these charters, afterwards modified, were the first steps towards the establishment of the present Republic of the United States. It will be noticed that the territory covered by the grants embraced a great portion of the regions claimed both by Spain and by France.

In 1607 Jamestown, Virginia, the first English town in North America, was founded by Lord de la Warr upon James River (Powhatan), Chesapeake Bay. But France was not idle, De Monts and Poutrincourt had started settlements in Acadia (1605), Pontgravé, Chauvin and Champlain had entered the St. Lawrence, and in 1608 Quebec was founded. The Dutch, too, England's great rivals in India, their hands freed by the truce concluded in 1609 with Spain, sent an exploring expedition under Hudson, and in 1613 they began New Amsterdam (now New York), and in 1614 built a fort on Manhattan Island, and claimed a territory, comprising parts of the modern States of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, which they called the

New Netherlands. In 1615 they built a fortress, close to the modern Albany, on the Hudson, a little south of the mouth of the Mohawk. In the same year Captain Smith explored the coast of New England and gave it its name. Colonisation now fairly started, new settlements quickly followed.

In 1620 the little company of Puritans, known as the Pilgrim Fathers, driven from England to Leyden by the petty persecution of the pusillanimous James, sought a new home where they might practise their religion in freedom, and, first seeking permission of the ungracious King, sailed in the "Mayflower" a crazy vessel of 180 tons, intending to land near the Hudson; but, after a stormy voyage of sixty-three days, and a narrow escape from wreck, they were glad to take refuge, where the winds and waves had forced them, on the coast of Massachusetts, and there was New Plymouth built.

In 1622 Sir William Alexander obtained a patent for all the territory east of the River St. Croix and south of the St. Lawrence, a tract already, at least as early as 1605, included in the French Provinces of Acadia and New France under De Monts and Poutrincourt. Alexander made a futile attempt to form a Scotch settlement, but though the patent was renewed in 1625, the project was not proceeded with.

In 1627 Gustavus Adolphus authorised the planting of Swedish Colonies in America. No actual attempt appears to have been made till 1637, after the triumphant death of Gustavus at Lutzen, and, in 1638, New Sweden, on the banks of the Delaware, was established.

In 1628 England conquered Canada, if so dignified a word can be applied to the compelling the surrender of Quebec by Champlain, and his handful of starving countrymen, to the well-found fleet of the Brothers Kirke. Four years after, the astute Richelieu had succeeded by diplomacy in obtaining the restoration of Canada, Cape Breton, and Acadia; but no boundaries were defined, and this omission was a principal cause of subsequent wars.

In 1628 Sir Henry Roswell and others made further English settlements in Massachusetts, which, in 1629 were united to Plymouth. In the same year New Hampshire was settled under a patent held by John Mason. In 1633, following a project by Sir George Calvert, afterwards the first Lord Baltimore, to found an English Roman Catholic Colony, Maryland was separated from Virginia under the second Lord Baltimore.

In 1630 the Valley of the Connecticut was granted to the Earl of Warwick by the Council of New England, and afterwards to Lord Saye and Sele, Lord Brooke, John Hampden and others; but before any colony could be established by them, the Dutch had built, at Hartford, the House of Good Hope, and emigrants from New Plymouth and Boston had also commenced settlements in the territory. In 1633 the younger Winthrop, acting for the proprietor, erected a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut River, and in 1636 a Government was organised. The Pequot Indians gave some trouble, but soon learnt the terrible power of European weapons, and, as a nation, were wiped off the face of the earth.

In 1636, Roger Williams, a Puritan minister, having fled to America from persecution in England, brought himself into collision with the narrow and bigoted authorities of Massachusetts by his bold claim for liberty of conscience, of which he may be said to have been the first champion of that age. He was expelled from Massachusetts, and founded Providence, the capital of Rhode Island. In 1638 John Davenport settled New Haven, Connecticut.

Meanwhile the Frenchman Champlain had explored the Ottawa and Lake Nipissing, passed down the Trent river, crossed Lake Ontario, fought a battle with the Iroquois near Lake Oneida, explored the River Richelieu, and Lake Champlain as far as the future site of Crown Point, and fought a battle there also. He had concluded treaties with the Hurons and other tribes, and, unfortunately for his nation in later times, quarrelled with the Iroquois (the Five Nations). The Jesuits, starting from Quebec, had, with extraordinary self-devotion, braved all the dangers from savages, privation and hardship, in their endeavours to spread the Gospel according to their views of it.

In 1642 Montreal was founded, and connected with its origin is a curious tale so characteristic of the spirit of the times that a short statement of it will not be out of place. The annual "Relations," sent home yearly by the Jesuits from the head-quarters of their mission at Quebec (Stadacone) for publication in France, which contained graphic accounts of the deadly struggle between Christ, the Virgin and the angels, and their earthly agents, the priests, on the one side, and the devil and his tools, the Iroquois, on the other, were exciting great interest and enthusiasm in the religious world. About 1636 Jerome le Royer de la Danversière, a collector of taxes of La Fléche, in Anjou, a mystic, an enthusiast, who scourged himself with small

chains, wore a belt with more than 1,200 sharp points, and indulged in other such religious luxuries for the comfort of his soul, had a revelation. While at his devotions, an inward voice commanded him to found a new order of hospital nuns, and to establish, on the island called Montreal, in Canada, a hospital to be conducted by them. About the same time Jacques Olier, a young priest, afterwards the founder of the seminary of S. Sulpice, was told, in a similar manner and under like circumstances, that he was destined to be a light to the Gentiles, and, further, that he was to form a society of priests and establish it on an island in Canada, called Montreal. The two men were entire strangers to one another, and neither had any knowledge of Canadian geography; but they became miraculously acquainted with all the details of the situation and surroundings of Montreal, and as soon as they met, apparently by chance, each immediately recognised the other and knew the design in his mind. Montreal was a wilderness without inhabitants, so that it would have seemed to an ordinary mind that a hospital there was a superfluity. Nevertheless, Olier found some money, more was obtained from the faithful, arrangements were made with Lauson, the nominal owner of the island and fisheries, and an expedition of forty men, commanded by the devout and valiant Paul de Chomedey, Sieur de Maisonneuve, was despatched to take possession. Another miraculous introduction had provided Mdlle. Jeanne Mauvee, an honourable lady on the shady side of thirty, to accompany the adventurers as nurse and housekeeper. In spite of difficulties thrown in its way by the governor and Jesuit community of Quebec, the little band reached the island, and in 1642, just 100 years after Cartier's last visit, laid the foundations of Villemarie de Montreal. For some time the infant town escaped the notice of the hostile Iroquois, and when they at last found it, it was so far strongly fortified as to afford security to those within it.

In 1654 the Swedish Governor of Fort Christina on the Delaware, between surprise and treachery, captured the Dutch Fort Casimir, on the site of Newcastle, on the same river. In the following year Stuyvesant (Peter the headstrong), the third and last Dutch Governor of New Amsterdam, recaptured Fort Casimir, reduced Fort Christina, and annexed New Sweden to the New Netherlands. Ten years later New Amsterdam and the New Netherlands, were in their turn annexed by England, and New Amsterdam became New York, and Orange, Albany.

In 1663 the province of Carolina, extending from 36° N. Lat. to the River San Matheo, was formed and Clarendon, the Duke of Albemarle, Lord Craven, Ashley Cooper, (the future Earl of Shaftesbury), and others, were made its proprietors and rulers. A constitution was drawn up, by John Locke, on the broadest and most liberal lines with regard to religious toleration and liberty of conscience. The original grant covered the space between 31° and 36° N. Lat. from the Atlantic and the Pacific, and included the countries afterwards known as South Carolina and Georgia, and many others. In 1670, the proprietors despatched an expedition, under West and Sayle, to settle further south, and a separate Government was established for South Carolina. In 1680, William Penn, son of Admiral Sir William Penn, the conqueror of Jamaica (who died leaving to his son a claim of £16,000 on the Government) obtained a charter for the territory of Pennsylvania; the Duke of York afterwards sold to him Newcastle and Delaware, and in 1682 an effective settlement was made by him. The Quaker colony remained the property of the Penn family until the American War of Independence, but Delaware was detached, and made an independent colony in 1702.

Meanwhile the French, from their stations on the St. Lawrence, had been pushing their trade with the Indians, and converting them to Christianity. The brave Jesuits never hesitated to obey orders to penetrate the wildest and most dangerous regions, and in this way Father Marquette, accompanied by Joliét, had visited the valleys of the Illinois and Mississippi. In 1682, Robert Cavalier de la Salle, a Frenchman, educated by the Jesuits, but of too masterful and independent a spirit to submit to the narrow and degrading discipline of the order, abandoning a life of easy independence, started from Montreal, explored Lakes Ontario, Erie, St. Clair and Michigan, descended the Illinois river to its junction with the Mississippi (Father of Waters), and followed the latter stream to its mouth. He claimed the territory for France and named it Louisiana. Two years later the brave and unfortunate explorer sailed from La Rochelle, with about 280 persons, including 100 soldiers, some skilled artisans and young women, intending to form a settlement near the mouth of the river. The story of this disastrous undertaking, and of the brutal and treacherous murder of La Salle by some of his own followers, is recorded by M. Joutel, an officer who accompanied him. Hennepin, priest, liar and traitor, claimed to have preceeded him in his discoveries, but his imposture has been detected and exposed.

Between 1724 and 1731 Vermont, lying between the English colonies of New York and New Hampshire, was settled by the French. In 1732 Georgia was settled by General Oglethorpe.

It will be seen by a glance at the sketch map at the end of this note how the province of New York, which is mainly the subject of the map engraved upon the horn, lay with respect to the English and French colonies in 1755, at the beginning of the Seven years' war, and how its situation marked it as a battlefield between the contending nations. But a modern map, with its clearly marked boundaries of Canada and the States, gives no idea of the confusion then existing. The western boundaries of the English colonies were ill-defined, or not defined at all. Both countries claimed the whole continent by right of discovery. They were equally land-robbers as regarded the Indians; but the proverb that "when thieves fall out 'honest men come by their own,'" has been falsified in America.

CHAPTER III.

THE NATIVE RACES AND THE FUR TRADE.

THE 12th October, 1492, was an unhappy day for the then inhabitants of America and the Islands. The peaceful natives of Hispaniola, for example, were in fifteen years reduced in numbers from at least 1,000,000 to 60,000; they were worked to death, starved, tortured, and driven to suicide by the revolting cruelty of the Spaniards. The conquests of Mexico and Peru are proverbial examples of the worst kinds of treachery and sanguinary ferocity on the part of conquerors. But the Spaniards were not singular in their evil doings. Many of the early voyagers seem to have kidnapped the natives as a matter of course, either to sell them or to keep them in slavery. Columbus, Hojeda, Cortereal, Ovando, Ayllon, Cartier and Waymouth did it. There is a wonderful unanimity in the earlier accounts of the natives with respect to their peaceful and friendly demeanour towards the white man, but what wonder that, when the character of these eastern barbarians was discovered by the western savage, friendly sentiments ceased, and exploration became possible only for armed men.

But, notwithstanding this unfortunate beginning of intercourse, both the French and the English in later years, succeeded in forming valuable alliances with many of the northern tribes. The two nations dealt with their red-skinned hosts in somewhat different ways—the French spoke them fair, disclaimed all intention of taking their lands, flattered them, baptized them, and gave them religious toys, which pleased the vanity of the savage, but they gave them not so good value for their furs as the English did. The English on the other hand treated the Indians as inferiors, made no secret of their intention to possess the land, for which, however, they paid, and trusted by fair barter to get their share of the valuable trade in furs.

Between the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario on the north-west, Lake Champlain on the east, and a line drawn south of the Mohawk, and Lakes Seneca and Onondaga on the south, dwelt the Iroquois, a powerful confederation of tribes known as "The Five Nations." They consisted of the Seneca, Cayuga, Onondaga, Oneida and Mohawk tribes, all probably

originally forming one family, which, having been broken into sections by internal dissensions, was wise enough to reunite for mutual protection and support against their rivals the Hurons. In 1715 the confederation was joined by the Tuscaroras, and was afterwards known as "The Six Nations." The Iroquois, undoubtedly the strongest among Indian nations, became an important factor in shaping the history of Indian influence in North America. As we have seen, Champlain in 1609 and the following years, had succeeded in alienating these powerful tribes by somewhat wanton attacks upon them. The Frenchmen, clad in armour and armed with arquebusses, made great havoc among the Indians, who, hitherto unconquered, were overmatched in a kind of fighting new to them. From this cause, and others connected with trade, the Iroquois became the friends of England, and proved most valuable allies in the struggle between the two European nations.

On either side of Niagara lay the country of the Attiwandarons, called "the neutral nation," on account of their abstention from taking part in the wars between the Hurons and Iroquois.

Between Lakes Huron, Ontario and Nipissing was the country of the Hurons, a nation on the same high level with the Iroquois, as compared with other native races, and of the same linguistic stock.

On the north of the Ottawa, extending eastward into the New England States were the Algonquins, nomadic and unsettled, and, both physically and intellectually, inferior to the Hurons and Iroquois.

The Hurons, Algonquins, with the Miemaes, Abenakis, &c., of Acadia besides many other tribes further from the field of the map on the horn, became the allies of the French.

As allies, however, the Indians were only to be depended upon so long as fortune favoured the side they had chosen. Astute and crafty, though strictly honourable according to his lights, the Indian had almost as good an idea of taking care of No. 1 as the European. Nevertheless, he was often shamefully imposed upon and overreached, and cannot be blamed if, when taught by experience, he paid the Europeans in their own coin. Intensely proud he was also; and this was a dangerous quality for his allies. A fancied slight, or a suspicion of wrong, would cause an Indian force to withdraw from a battle at the most critical moment, without regard to the consequences to its friends.

Old John Speed, in his History of the World (1627), sums up the Indians thus: "Their manners are conformable to their religion—beastly." It is very difficult, however, to say what their religion was. They had many myths and traditions of heroes; they believed that after death they would go to the happy hunting grounds and would want for nothing there; but whether they had any conception of a Supreme Being is more than doubtful. Their Manitous (Algonquin) and Okies (Huron) were supernatural beings of all kinds in form and attribute, animate or inanimate, good or bad. The names afterwards came to be used to express the new idea of God which the Indians had learnt from the white man, and for which they had no word. It should not be forgotten that the invasion of the Indian's lands, the robbery of his property, the destruction of his villages and the slaughter of himself by the white man, was, according to the cant of the time, all done in the cause of Christianity and for the good of the Indian's soul. The Jesuits seem to have used strange methods with the Indians. Two instances of the kind of belief the Christian Indians imbibed will suffice. One said that Jesus Christ was an Englishman crucified by the English, and that, therefore, it was a laudable act to take English scalps. Another said that the great Onontio, *i.e.*, the King of France, was the eldest son of the wife of Christ, an idea arising from a too literal interpretation of the mystical name of the Church, "the Spouse," and the title of "the Eldest Son of the Church" applied to the King.

The priests and Jesuits found the terrors of hell more effective as means of conversion than the joys of an idle and insipid paradise. "You do good to your friends and you burn your enemies. God does the same," was the teaching of Le Jeune, and it suited the Indian mind exactly. Pictures were largely used for the purposes of religious instruction.

"L'auois désiré quelques portraits de l'enfer et de l'âme damnée; on nous en a enuoyé quelques vns en papier, mais cela est trop confus. Les diables sont tellement meslez avec les hommes, qu'on n'y peut rien recoignoistre, qu'avec vne particuliere attention. Qui depeindroit trois ou quatre ou cinq demons, tourmentans vne âme de diuers supplices, lvn luy appliquant des feux, l'autre des serpens, l'autre la tenaillant, l'autre le tenant liée avec des chaisnes, cela auroit vn bon effet, notamment si tout estoit bien distingué, et que la rage et la tristesse parussent bien en la face de cette âme desesperée," is a request sent home to France by a

Father Superior (Relations, 1637). Another priest writes home for plenty of pictures of the torments of hell, but considers that one of the joys of paradise will suffice. Pictures of the Virgin, virgin saints, and of Christ, were popular; but, in asking for the latter, the reverend father judiciously says, "Send me a picture of Christ without a beard," knowing that the American natives had a prejudice against beards, having none themselves, and carefully eradicating any hairs which might chance to appear upon their faces. This is an instance, not only of the prejudices of the Indians, but of the careful way in which the French missionaries took care to humour them, even in small details.

The Jesuits seem hardly to have concerned themselves sufficiently, in the interests of humanity, about the diabolical tortures to which the prisoners of their Indian allies were subjected, so long as they were allowed to baptize the victims first. "The soul saved, what matter a few hours' torment of the 'miserable body,'" seems to have been their idea. But they always protested against the cannibal feast which usually followed such ceremonies. Sometimes the converted tormentors were discontent at the tender mercies of the Jesuits, and would protest against the baptism, saying, "Let him burn in 'hell also, when we have burnt him here."

It would be curious to know how the teachings of the Spanish and French priests struck the unfortunate Indian as a gospel of peace. Yet, among these priests were some of the most noble and self-devoted men who have ever adorned any ministry. Such men were Journe, Lallement and Brebeuf, of whom let those who may, read more in Parkman's fascinating history. But, both priests and Jesuits degenerated too often into political schemers, and such men as Picquet, Germain and Le Loutre, though useful to their nation, did more harm than good to their Indian tools and allies, and little credit to their holy Orders.

The stern and sombre doctrine of the new England missionaries was less acceptable, and more incomprehensible to the Indian mind, than that of the Roman Catholics. Outward forms he could copy, elaborate ritual and gorgeous ornaments he could admire, reliques and symbols were like the charms and totems to which he had been used. The Puritan teaching did not make much progress. John Eliot, who translated the Bible into the Algonquin language, was the most successful missionary, but it was the crushing

defeat of the Pequots that did most to persuade the Indians that the English God "was a most dreadful God."

Before the arrival of the Europeans, the weapons and implements of the Northern Indians were of stone, bone, and wood; the Senecas had a blow gun for killing small game. Where game was scarce, the Indians were more settled, and lived principally upon maize which their women cultivated; where there was plenty of game the Indians roamed, carrying their wigwams with them. Their clothing in winter, and for ceremonial purposes, was ample, and often very ornate, especially as to the head-gear. In summer, and on the war trail, the warrior's dress consisted generally of a waist cloth, and moccassins, paint and nakedness. They were, as a rule, monogamists, in name at least, but divorce was simple, and it was easy to reconstruct a household out of fresh materials. Of their morality outside wedlock, the less said the better. Every employment, except war, hunting, smoking, and talking, was beneath the dignity of the man, and the woman did all the hard work, but she was otherwise fairly well treated. Their gastronomic tastes were catholic; they ate dogs because they liked them; men and women for superstitious or ceremonial reasons; skunks, snakes and putrid flesh, without aversion, when they found it convenient. On death the property of the deceased went to his brothers, or to the children of his sisters. The Sachems, or civil chiefs, were either elected, or hereditary, in the latter case, the rule of succession following that of the descent of property. Any one who could induce a sufficient number of men to form a war party to follow him, might become a war chief. The treatment of prisoners was fiendish in the extreme; the tortures were extended often over many days, and when the diabolical ingenuity of the warriors was exhausted, the victim was handed over to the women, who always had some choice devices in reserve, and, if the victim had any capacity for suffering left in him after this, he was handed over, bound, to the children of the village to practise upon. But, cruel as a victor, the Indian displayed the most remarkable stoicism and power of endurance as a victim, enduring the most frightful torments without a groan, or a change of countenance, and chaffing and taunting his tormentors, with marvellous courage, to the last. The treatment of female captives differed considerably in different tribes. A remarkable practice was the adoption of a prisoner into the tribe, to replace a husband, a brother or a son, who had been killed in the battle. The practice of scalping fallen

enemies is well known. The scalp was a valued trophy, and a great assistance to its possessor in future fields of love, war, and council. There were several modes of scalping, varying from the removal of a small circle of skin around the scalp lock, which was considerably worn in view of this particular eventuality, to the removal of the whole of the skin above the eyes, and occiput including the ears. Sometimes, if the coiffure of the victim permitted, two or more scalps were taken from the same head. Colonel Dodge saw in an Indian camp a 'scalp,' consisting of almost the entire skin of head, face, and front of the body to the fork, in one piece. It was greatly valued as "big medicine." The body of a hirsute European was a "sweet boon" to the scalper.

Both the French and English were guilty, as the Americans have been in this century, of the abominable practice of offering money bounties for Indian scalps, whether of men or women. Thus in 1764 the Governor of Pennsylvania, urged by the colonists who were smarting under the Indian border raids, offered by proclamation, 150 Spanish dollars for every male Indian prisoner above ten years old, or 134 dollars for his scalp; and 130 dollars for every female prisoner above ten years old, or 50 dollars for her scalp. The prices have fallen, for the Idaho legislature not fifty years ago resolved "that for every buck scalp be paid 100 dollars; for every squaw 50 dollars, and 25 dollars for everything in the shape of an Indian under ten years of age, that each scalp shall have the curl of the head, etc." (see Dodge's "Hunting Grounds of the Far West"). A similar plan was adopted by the New Mexicans against the Apaches, but it was soon found that the offered reward brought in the scalps of as many friends as foes.

A notable article of Indian manufacture was wampum. It consisted of small shell beads cut with great labour, and generally black, red, purple or white. Near the coast, whole shells of dentalium, a widely distributed marine shell, resembling a tiny elephant's tusk, were used instead of the hand-made beads. In later times the shell beads were manufactured by Europeans, and when glass and porcelain beads began to be imported they were largely adopted as a substitute for shell, and known as "White man's wampum." Wampum was used for ornament, and as currency, every bead having its known value. But it also served instead of pen and ink and paper. It was woven into belts for public purposes, importing messages of war, records of treaties, credentials of messengers, &c. The patterns, devices and colors,

had the significance of writing to the Indian mind. A belt was delivered by an orator for each important clause of his speech, and these belts were stored up as public records, and interpreted in the future by the Sachems. A belt summoning to war was always black and red; in a belt signifying peace, white predominated; and a message of mourning or condolence was conveyed by a black belt. Mention ought to be made of the extremely beautiful embroidery in stained porcupine quills, which deserves to rank as one of the high arts of the American aborigine.

In a country where the rivers were the high roads, it is not surprising that the Indians should have contrived a canoe which was, and is, a masterpiece. The birch bark canoes of the Hurons and Algonquins are scarcely to be surpassed for lightness, a great desideratum where the canoes have to be carried over portages from stream to stream; the Iroquois, for want of better material, were forced to make theirs of elm bark, which is somewhat heavier. There were several Indian modes of constructing rough fortifications, one by means of palisadoes with earth heaped against them; another by felling trees and laying them as a fence with the boughs outward.

The introduction of English rum and whiskey and French brandy, at first used for purposes of conciliation, and afterwards for trading, had a lamentable effect upon the American native, as it has uniformly had upon savage races all over the world. When Governor Carver first met the Indians at New Plymouth, in 1620, he offered rum, but the cup had passed untasted nearly round the circle of chiefs, when one, bolder and more polite than the rest, accepted and drank the liquor. His companions thought his drunken sleep death, but when he awoke and described the happy effects he had experienced, and asked for more, his companions all drank too. This seems to be a unique example of the refusal of ardent spirits by American Indians. As a rule they took to spirits as naturally as babes to their mother's milk, and with, if possible, greater avidity. A very little spirit overcame them, and when in their cups they became demons, and scarcely cared to distinguish friend from foe. Many a shocking massacre has been directly traceable to the potations of the Indians. The Indian races have perished and are perishing rapidly; war, pestilence and famine have done their shares of the work, but raw trade spirit has not only slain its proportion, but has served to degrade and demoralise those left living. Prohibitions against supplying it to the Indians, which have been numerous, have been also futile, and have only

served to make the traffic more profitable. In spite of the vendetta which existed amongst the Indians, a murder was held by them to be excused, if committed under the influence of drink.

In the earliest wars, such as the Pequot war in New England, in 1736, the primitive weapons of the Indians were pitted against European firearms. As a result when seventy-seven Englishmen attacked a strong Indian fort near Stonington, garrisoned by 700 Pequots, 695 of the Indians were slain, without loss to the English. At the time of King Philip's war, in Massachusetts and Connecticut (1674), the Indians had acquired European weapons and some knowledge of their use. So when 985 English, under Winslow, stormed an Indian swamp fortress, they only succeeded in killing 1,000 Indians, and that with heavy loss to themselves. That victory, however, broke the power of the Indians in New England. In Pontiac's war—1763 and 1764—the Indians got very decidedly the best of it, and destroyed every outlying English fort, except that at Detroit, which they besieged for fifteen months.

We must be content with such an "Impressionist" sketch as the above of the Indians with whom the white man had to trade if he could, and to fight if he were obliged. The Indian commodities were furs and tobacco, the trade in the former of which offered the far more lucrative business. Every year a fleet of canoes laden with furs came down the Ottawa to Les Trois Rivieres, the French trading station between Montreal and Quebec. The shores of Lake Ontario and the rivers Illinois and Mississippi offered to the French great facilities for the fur trade. The English, though they possessed the coast, were not in such favourable circumstances for the Indian trade; and the aim of the French was not only to prevent them from increasing their opportunities of trading, but to deprive them of those which they already possessed.

The trade in furs was exceedingly lucrative, as the following list of prices, paid by the French Canada Company in 1742, will show:—

A pound of shot, two fish hooks, three flints, or a bill hook	One beaver skin.
A pound of gunpowder, an axe, or a gallon of brandy	Four beaver skins.
A common hat, or a check shirt	Seven beaver skins.
A pistol	Ten beaver skins.
A blanket	Twelve beaver skins.

An ell of coarse cloth	Fifteen beaver skins.
A gun	Twenty beaver skins.

And all these prices are reckoned to have yielded a profit of 2,000 per cent.

The other principal furs were: fox, of several kinds; marten; sable; ermine; otter; bear, white, brown and black; wild cat; lynx; wolf; squirrel; opossum; and musk rat, the latter animal being valuable also for its musk, as the beaver for its castoreum; buffalo and seals. For leather, the skins of elk, Cariboo and other deer, goats and wolves.

The New England States were principally valuable for their produce in furs and timber, and the fisheries off the coasts; the Virginian States for tobacco, although they also produced furs.

It is not wonderful that the profitable fur trade should have been the object of competition between France and England, and a principal cause of a struggle which could only be concluded by the ousting of one of the rivals.*

* Writing in 1877, Colonel Dodge says:—"The fur trade of North America has founded and built up some of the most colossal fortunes in England, France and America. The larger portion of this trade comes from the Indian. Its profits, even with the legitimate traffic, were, and still are, enormous; and, when advantage is taken of his passion for finery and fire water, these already enormous profits are so far increased that sharp and unscrupulous competition is not to be wondered at. The nature of the direct trade, the small capital required, and its position outside the jurisdiction of the law, attract to it the very worst class of whites, who communicate to the Indian all the most glaring vices, and none of the good qualities, of civilisation.

"That the Indian at this day is the cruel, inhuman savage that he is, is partly the fault of the Government, which has never done its duty by him," and the Colonel proceeds to give his reasons.

CHAPTER IV.

WARS AND RUMOURS OF WAR, 1685 TO 1755.

James II. of England, a brave man and a bad king, had succeeded his debauched brother in 1685. A pervert to Roman Catholicism, he at once set himself to accomplish the unpopular task of restoring his own religion in England. He became a pensioner of Louis XIV., and soon disgusted his subjects by repeating the Stuart trick of levying customs and excise without the authority of Parliament. He virtually repealed the Test Acts by appointing Roman Catholics to posts in the army and the council; he published the Declaration of Indulgence, declaring liberty of conscience for all creeds, and ordered the Bishops to instruct their clergy to read it publicly in all the churches; the bishops protested against it as illegal and refused to obey. This led to "the Trial of the Seven Bishops" for sedition. Their acquittal June 30th, 1687, was celebrated by great public rejoicings, and, on the same day, a large body of the malcontent nobility and gentry sent an invitation to William of Orange to come and save their rights and liberties. William, who was a son of Mary, the daughter of Charles I., came, nothing loth, and landed at Torbay, November 5th, 1688. James fled, but was caught and brought back, and in January, 1689, the Crown was offered to, and accepted by, William and Mary. The six Bishops surviving out of the seven tried, refused to take the oaths to the new government, and, with those of the clergy who followed their example, are known as "the Nonjurors." James sought the assistance of Louis XIV., who assisted him to invade Ireland. William defeated James's troops at the battle of the Boyne, and the selfish rule of the Stuart dynasty has vexed England no more.

The deposition of the French hireling James, had set the two nations by the ears again, and open hostilities at once broke out between their representatives in North America; jealous and watchful of each other they had been before. Major Me Gregory in 1687, venturing to trade with the Indians on the Huron, was peremptorily warned off by the French. Denonville the

Governor of Canada, in the same year, built a fort at Niagara on the ruins of La Salle's fort, with a view to cutting off the English trade with the Indians. This, Dongan, Governor of New York, with some reason, considered an encroachment upon his Sovereign's territory, and remonstrated, with diplomatic courtesy, but with so much firmness, that Denonville was obliged to abandon his pet project, and demolish his own fort in the following year. But when, in 1689, the news of the accession of William and Mary reached Canada, the smouldering fire burst into a flame, and fighting began, both French and English using the services of their Indian allies with terrible effect. Thus, the Iroquois massacred a thousand of the French at Montreal, in 1689, and the French with the Caghnuaga or Praying Indians, retaliated by massacring the inhabitants of the outlying town of Schenectady in the following year. Sir William Phipps reduced Acadia, and continual raids and counter-raids vexed the land of Apalacha until, in 1697 (September 10th), the treaty of Ryswick terminated the war. France acknowledged William as King of England, and Anne as his successor, and agreed to withdraw her assistance from James.

In New York city itself, the change of Sovereigns brought about a small rebellion. Colonel Dongan, the Governor, appointed by James while still Duke of York, was an estimable man and a good Governor, but he was a Roman Catholic. A number of his co-religionists were encouraged to settle in the town, much to the discontent and alarm of the Protestant population. Rumours of the designs in England, in favour of the Prince of Orange, reached New York, and roused the hopes of the malcontents. Soon after the fact of the landing of the Prince in England was known in Boston, the population had risen and deposed the tyrant Andros, and no sooner had news of this spread to New York, than its citizens desired to emulate the example of the Bostonians. Jacob Leisler, with other militia officers, and one Milbourne, an Englishman and Leisler's son-in-law, surprised and seized the garrison in New York. Having taken possession of the fort, Leisler sent a loyal address to William and Mary as soon as he heard of their actual accession. He acted as Governor, and, later on, assumed the title, as well as the authority, of Lieutenant-Governor, and formed a council.

Meanwhile, an independent rebellion in support of William and Mary, had taken place in Albany. The authorities of the two towns, with incredible folly, quarrelled and fought.

The lawfully constituted authorities of New York, who had refused to join Leisler, were now envious of him, and took care to misrepresent his conduct to the King ; so that, when Colonel Sloughter arrived as Governor in 1691, Leisler and Milbourne were imprisoned, tried, and executed as traitors. In this it seems clear that they were hardly treated, for, although a complaint, carried to England by Leisler's son, received the reply that his father and brother-in-law had been tried and executed according to law, provision was made for their families, their estates were restored, their bodies were exhumed and re-interred in the principal Dutch church in New York with great pomp, and their memories were honoured by the best Dutch families as those of sufferers for liberty.

That "treaties are made to be broken" has become a proverb, and the Treaty of Ryswick was no exception to the rule. After a hollow peace of five years, the war of the Spanish succession broke out. The "Partition Treaties" (1698 and 1700) had been designed to settle the ownership of the dominions of Charles II. of Spain. In breach of them, Louis XIV. amongst other acts of bad faith, had, at the death of James (16th September, 1701), acknowledged the Pretender, James Francis Edward, as successor to the English Crown. On March 8th, 1702, William III. died, and, immediately on the accession of Anne, war was declared. A desperate struggle terminated in the discomfiture of the French, and the Treaty of Utrecht was signed in March, 1713. As between England and France its terms were—that the Protestant succession through the House of Hanover should be secured; the Pretender was to be compelled to leave France; a permanent severance of the crowns of France and Spain was promised; Newfoundland, Acadia (Nova Scotia and New Brunswick) and the Hudson's Bay Territory, were ceded to England, while Cape Breton and the islands in the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence were assured to France.

In 1716, the French erected a fort at Onondaga, in the Iroquois country, and, therefore, according to the treaty, upon English territory; Colonel Schuyler immediately destroyed this fort. Spotswood, then Governor of Virginia, strongly urged the erection of a line of English forts in the Valley of the Ohio, but his wise counsel met with no attention. In 1721, the French further encroached by re-erecting the fort at Niagara, which had been destroyed by Denonville in 1688, and in 1726 they enlarged and greatly strengthened it. In 1725, Governor Burnet founded an English trading station at Oswego.

In 1731, the French built Fort Frederick* (Crown Point), on Lake Champlain, again on English territory. This fort commanded the route by the Hudson, between New York and the St. Lawrence, and was a standing menace to Albany and the English settlements on the Hudson and Mohawk Rivers.

In 1741, on the death of Charles VI., Emperor of Germany, the war of the Austrian succession broke out, and in 1742 England and Holland joined Austria against France and Prussia. Peace was concluded in 1748 by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which, amongst other things, the Treaty of Utrecht was confirmed, and England gave Cape Breton back to France. It was also stipulated that commissioners should be appointed to settle the boundaries between France and England in America.† As, after the Treaty of Utrecht, the French sought to limit the extent of Acadia to the peninsula of Nova Scotia, when it was taken from them, so, after the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which it was restored to them, they endeavoured to make its limits as wide as possible. The commissioners, one of whom was Governor Shirley, met in Paris in 1750, and, while they were engaged in fruitless negotiations, the French and English colonists endeavoured to settle the boundaries for themselves, in a more practical way; the French had established a mission at Caghnuaga on the St. Lawrence, with a view of winning over the Iroquois, in which they had but a small measure of success, but they carried on from thence an illicit trade with the Dutch at Albany. In 1749, Piequet a Sulpitian priest, established a mission at Swegage at the mouth of the Oswegatchie, "to extend the Empire of his good Masters, 'Jesus Christ and the King, even to the ends of this New World.'" His idea was, with the help of his Indian converts and allies, to drive the English from the Ohio, but it was not carried out.

* So called after Jean Frédéric Phélieaux, Comte de Maurepas, then a Secretary of State, and afterwards Prime Minister of Louis XVI.

† "France consented to the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, that she might the more securely pursue the objects of her ambition; and that under the disguise of peace she might extend and fortify her possessions in a part of the world, where her arms in time of open war had always, till then, been unsuccessful: for this purpose she had artfully contrived, that the American rights should not be determined by that treaty, but be left to the consideration of commissioners, to whose decisions she never meant to pay any regard. Canada was her vulnerable part; this therefore she resolved first to strengthen, and then to enter again with more confidence into war; while we were employed debating our rights, she took more effectual means to end the contest in her favour; she sent frequent supplies to America; she seized and fortified the passes and navigable rivers of that country, drove the English from their possessions, and built forts on the dominions of Great Britain; when this design was thus far advanced England saw it in all its terrors and with spirit determined to support her just rights."—Pamphlet by the Right Hon. Charles Jenkinson (afterwards Secretary for War) 1758.

Meanwhile the English Ohio Company had been established, and trade was opened with the Indians at Sandusky, on Lake Erie, much to the French discontent. Since its erection in 1725, the English trading station at Oswego had been a thorn in the side of the French, and had entirely drawn away the Indian trade from Fort Frontenac (Kingston), so, in 1749, an officer named Portneuf was sent to build a stockaded trading house at Toronto to intercept the Indians on their way to Oswego. Picquet passed down Lake Ontario to Niagara, and, on his return, inspected the hated Oswego from his canoe, and strongly advised the erection of a French fort at Sodus Bay, about twenty-five miles west of Oswego and between the latter place and Niagara, but declared that "it would be still better to destroy Oswego, and on no account let the English build it again."

As England and France were at peace, it was scarcely practicable for the latter to attack Oswego openly, but plans were formed to incite the Indians to do so as if on their own account, though they were never carried out. Indeed, the unfortunate natives were constantly used as the tools of one side against the other.

In 1752 the Marquis Duquesne succeeded the Baron de Longueil* as Governor of Canada. A bold and enterprising man, he at once declared that he would have a fort on each of the waters that flowed into the St. Lawrence and Mississippi. A chain of French forts extending from Tadoussac at the mouth of the St. Lawrence to New Orleans at the mouth of the Mississippi would effectually cut off the English from commerce with the interior, and make the huge western continent a close preserve for the French. Duquesne did not fail to take advantage of the stolid indifference of the British Government and provincial assemblies, on such matters.

The English laboured under great disadvantages in devising or carrying out measures precautionary or protective, offensive or defensive, as compared with their rivals. The New England colonies, as a whole, had little sympathy with the Virginian States, and, as individual States, were jealous of each other; not one of them was disposed to help the others, either with men or money; Pennsylvania was, on the principles of the Society of Friends, distinctly averse to fighting at all. The English councils were divided, the

* De Longueil was only Acting-Governor from the death of La Jonquiere, on the 6th March, 1752, till the arrival of Duquesne about Midsummer.

unity of their interests was not recognised, and there was no working together for their common weal. England possessed but a narrow strip of coast, fringed on the west by outlying settlements the very existence of which depended upon the continued goodwill of the Six Nations. Canada, on the other hand, was controlled by a military government centred at Quebec, with a definite purpose, and practically despotic power. France, by conciliatory treatment of the Indians, had been able to establish and to maintain, with the assent of their hosts, mission and trading stations, which had gradually become military posts, on the Great Lakes and in the heart of the Indian country, and had carefully fostered the ancient enmity between her savage allies and the Iroquois.

In April, 1753, certain young men of the Six Nations saw a large war party of French and Indians marching towards Ontario, and straightway bore the news to Onondaga, whence it was forwarded to the nearest English post. On the 19th April, the friendly Indians presented Johnson with the belt of warning; the French passed down Lake Ontario to Niagara, intending to occupy the Ohio valley, and the Indians determined to stay them. A first caution, delivered by them to the French at Niagara being unheeded, Tanacharisson, the half King, proceeded himself to the harbour of Erie (Presqu'isle), and desired them to withdraw, presenting a belt of wampum. The French commander spurned the belt, treated the half King with contempt, and established forts Presqu'isle, Le Boeuf (Waterford) and Venango, and prepared to occupy the banks of the Mononghela.

Such an encroachment roused even the stolid English, and Dinwiddie, Governor of Virginia, by order of the King, sent "a person of distinction to "the commander of the French forces on the Ohio River, to know his reasons "for invading the British Dominions, while a solid peace subsisted." The "person of distinction" selected, was George Washington, then twenty-one years old, a Major and Adjutant-General of the Virginia Militia. In the middle of November, with Christopher Gist as a guide, two interpreters, and only four attendants, the gallant youth began his dangerous journey. Passing the future site of Pittsburg, the young soldier marked it as the position of a future fortified city. He met the Delaware chiefs, and the half King agreed to return the speech belts of the French, and in the council it was determined to send a very large black and white wampum belt to the Six Nations, as an appeal for aid.

Passing Venango, Washington found St. Pierre, the French Commander, at Fort Le Boeuf. The envoy was received with the greatest courtesy, but the reply which he obtained was an avowal by St. Pierre of his intention to obey his orders with exactness and resolution; to seize every Englishman in the Valley of the Ohio; and a statement that France was resolved to possess the vast territory discovered by her missionaries and travellers. With this unsatisfactory answer, Washington hastened homeward. It was the depth of winter, and travelling was both painful and perilous. At Venango, finding his horses too weak to do their work, Washington and Gist started alone, on foot, for Williamsburg. A French Indian fired at Washington from a distance of only fifteen yards, and, missing his aim, was taken prisoner. Gist would have killed him, but Washington forbade, and let the captive go. Arrived at the Alleghany the adventurous pair, with great toil, built a raft, which was caught by the ice, Washington being thrown into the river, and with difficulty escaping with his life.

On receipt of Washington's report, the erection of a fort at the Fork between the Alleghany and Mononghela, was at once determined upon, and Captain Trent was despatched with thirty-two men to carry out the work. But hardly had they begun, when the French, under Contrecoeur, came down upon them from Venango, and, on the 17th April, Trent capitulated and withdrew. Contrecoeur seized the position and built Fort Duquesne there. Washington, then the Lieutenant-Colonel of his regiment of 150 raw and unmanageable men, was on his way to Trent's assistance, but was not in time to prevent the withdrawal. He erected a stockade (Fort Necessity) at Great Meadows, and with but 40 of his own men and some friendly Indians, surprised a French camp at sunrise on the 26th May, 1754. Washington himself fired the first shot. The French were defeated, Jumonville, their commander, killed and twenty-two prisoners taken. This was the actual beginning of active hostilities, though war was not formally declared till two years afterwards. The news of Washington's success was received in France with great indignation, and his name became known there only to be execrated, while Jumonville was regarded as a martyr.

Washington was in dire need of reinforcements, and looked eagerly to the other English colonies, which had all been appealed to, for help. None came. True, on Colonel Fry's death at Wills Creek, his three companies joined Washington, and a company from South Carolina arrived, but its

captain, holding the King's commission, claimed precedence over Washington, a mere militiaman, and while the latter with his Virginians laboured at the construction of a road to Gist's settlement, near Laurel Hill, on the Youghiogeny, the Carolinians, striking for extra pay which Washington could not give, lay idle at Great Meadows. Meanwhile, the numbers of the French were considerably increased, and on the 1st July, Washington was compelled to fall back on Fort Necessity. Here he was attacked, on the 3rd July, by 600 French and 100 Indians. The English, greatly outnumbered and occupying an inferior position, made so stubborn a defence that the French commander, De Villiers, a brother of the slain Jumonville, proposed a parley, with the result that the English, with all their effects, withdrew from the valley of the Ohio, across the Alleghanies, to Wills Creek. This defeat had a disastrous effect on the morale of the Indian allies of the English, and, on the renewal of hostilities in the following year, most of the western tribes turned their tomahawks against the English border settlers.

In order to estimate the chances of obtaining men and money, the proceedings of the British Home Government and the Provincial Assemblies must be glanced at. The Home Government, though desirous of keeping back the French, was not anxious that the English colonies should unite too closely, and dreaded the formation of an effective military system by them. The danger that after learning their strength by union against the common foe, they should use it to throw off the yoke of England was apparent to more than one far-seeing man on both sides of the Atlantic.* But the same objection did not apply to joint treaties with the Indians. The ties between the Iroquois and the English were loosened, partly on account of ill-success against the French, and partly because the Frenchmen, Joneaure and Picquet, were, with some success, endeavouring to gain the adherence of the

* Thus the Swedish traveller Kalm, writing in 1748, says:—"It is however of great advantage to the crown of England that the *North American* colonies are near a country, under the government of the *French* like *Canada*. There is reason to believe that the king never was earnest in his attempts to expel the *French* from their possessions there; though it might have been done with little difficulty. For the *English* colonies in this part of the world have increased so much in their number of inhabitants, and in their riches, that they almost vie with Old England. Now in order to keep up the authority and trade of their mother country, and to answer several other purposes, they are forbid to establish new manufactures, which would turn to the disadvantage of the *British* commerce: they are not allowed to dig for any gold or silver, unless they send them to *England* immediately; they have not the liberty of trading to any parts that do not belong to the *British* dominions, excepting some settled places, and foreign traders are not allowed to send their ships to them. These and some other restrictions occasion the inhabitants of the *English* colonies to grow less tender for their mother country. This coldness is kept up by the many foreigners such as *Germans*, *Dutch* and *French* settled

Senecas and Onondagas to the French cause, and the Dutch at Albany were alienating the Mohawks by appropriating their lands. The view of Hendrick, the Mohawk chief, was a fair one : "The Governor of Virginia and the Governor of Canada are quarrelling about lands which belong to us, and their quarrel may end in our destruction." Nevertheless, under the influence of Johnson, he renewed his treaty with the English.

The Virginia Governor, Dinwiddie, after much trouble, had procured from his Assembly a vote of £20,000. Pennsylvania was more restive, the majority of the people was opposed to war on principle, and the Assembly took advantage of the wording of instructions from home, directing the various governors to call on their provinces for means to repel any invasion "within the undoubted limits of His Majesty's dominion," to avoid granting any supplies at all, on the ground that they could not decide what were the "undoubted limits of His Majesty's dominions." Further pressed, they made several grants, but always hampered by such conditions as could not be accepted by the Governor, and finally told him "that they would rather be conquered by the French than give up their privileges." The New York Assembly, said, at first, that there was no evidence of any invasion of His Majesty's colonies; but, after Washington's defeat, they voted £5,000 to help Virginia. Maryland, after some demur, gave £6,000. New Jersey, deeming herself protected by the other colonies, refused to contribute. New England, and especially Massachusetts, had felt the sting of the French, and were willing to fight. Shirley, governor of Massachusetts, sent 800 men under Winslow to build two forts on the Kennebec. The Southern colonies, engaged in internal squabbles, would scarcely view the idea of a French invasion seriously.

Franklin proposed his first scheme of union, which was rejected both by the King and the colonies; the King proposed his, but it would have undoubtedly

"here, and living among the *English*, who commonly have no particular attachment to *Old England*; add to this likewise that many people can never be contented with their possessions, though they be ever so great, and will always be desirous of getting more, and of enjoying the pleasure which arises from changing; and their over great liberty, and their luxury often lead them to licentiousness.

"I have been told by *Englishmen*, and not only by such as were born in *America*, but even by such as came from *Europe*, that the *English* colonies in *North America*, in the space of thirty or fifty years, would be able to form a State by themselves, entirely independent of *Old England*. But as the whole country which lies along the sea-shore is unguarded, and on the land side is harassed by the *French*, in times of war these dangerous neighbours are sufficient to prevent the connection of the colonies with their mother country from being quite broken off. The *English* Government has therefore sufficient reason to consider the *French* in *North America* as the best means of keeping the colonies in their due submission."—*Forster's Translation*, 1770.

been rejected by the Assemblies, and no attempt was made to carry it into effect. The portrait drawn by Parkman of the Duke of Newcastle, then Prime Minister, might serve, with but slight alteration, for that of a more modern statesman. "A more preposterous figure than the Duke of Newcastle never stood at the head of a great nation. He had a feverish craving for place and power, joined to a total unfitness for both. He was an adept in personal politics, and was so busied with the arts of winning and keeping office that he had no leisure, even if he had the ability, for higher government. He was restless, quick in movement, rapid and confused in speech, lavish of worthless promises, always in a hurry, and at once headlong, timid and rash." "A fantastic political jobber," is Parkman's descriptive summary. The ruling power in France was Madame de Pompadour. Her appointments or recommendations, practically synonymous terms, were made not because the recipient was fitted for the post, but because she pleased her. England had 200 ships of war; France about half the number; England had but 18,000 troops, while France had nearly 180,000. It was France's policy to delay the struggle and gain time, England's to precipitate it.

In January, 1755, Braddock embarked for America with two regiments, the 44th and 48th. Immediately this was known in France, eighteen ships, with 3,000 men under Dieskau, sailed for Canada. The fleet sailed in May. Still the French professed peaceful intentions, though secret instructions were sent to Duquesne to destroy Fort Halifax, one of the two recently built by Shirley on the Kennebec, and he was expressly enjoined to pretend that he acted without orders. Braddock also had his secret orders, which were the reverse of pacific.

Admirals Boscawen and Holbourne were dispatched with eighteen ships to intercept Dieskau's expedition, and, off Cape Race, captured two of the French ships, the "Lys" and the "Alcide."* This occurred, it is to be noted, in time of peace and while negotiations, nominally pacific, were going on. But Boscawen's broadsides broke off the negotiations, and, though the formal declaration of war was still delayed for a year, the fighting had begun in earnest. The rest of the French evaded capture, and in June Dieskau, with De Vaudreuil, who succeeded Duquesne as governor, reached Quebec.

* The French view of this action is shown in the following extract from an historical memoir, published at Paris, by authority: "The limits of Acadie and Canada, which by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, were left to the discretion of Commissioners to be named by the two Potentates, have served England as a pretence for commencing hostilities, and for taking two French ships, the 'Alcide' and the 'Lys'; while, in the midst of peace, and under the sanction of the law of nations, the Duke of Mirepoix, the French Ambassador, was treating at London in order to prevent a rupture, and to terminate those differences, which might have been easily accommodated at Aix-la-Chapelle, and which, while the peace subsisted, had met with the most unreasonable and extravagant opposition on the part of the English Commissioners. The unexpected violence offered on the part of the English necessarily brought on the war."

CHAPTER V.

CAMPAIGN OF 1755.

EDWARD BRADDOCK, who had been selected to command in America by the Duke of Cumberland, is thus described by Baneroff: "A man "in fortunes desperate, in manners brutal, in temper despotic; obstinate "and intrepid; expert in the niceties of a review; harsh in discipline." The Duke, having confidence only in regular troops, ordered that the general and field officers of the provincial forces should have no rank when serving with the King's troops. Thereupon Washington resigned and his regiment was broken up, but he afterwards joined Braddock at Wills Creek (Cumberland) as aide-de-camp.

The question of taxing the American colonies had already been mooted. It was the beginning of the end of British rule in the United States. Braddock consulted with the provincial governors, who, recalling their difficulties with their Assemblies, assured him that no colonial revenue could be raised without the authority of Parliament.

As soon as Braddock had examined the situation, four separate expeditions were arranged, viz.: (1) Lawrence, the Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia, was to reduce Acadia; (2) Sir William Johnson, with provincial troops and Mohawk Indians, was to attack Fort Crown Point; (3) Shirley was to take Niagara; and (4) Braddock himself was to occupy the Ohio valley, destroy Fort Duquesne, join Shirley at Niagara, and go on to Fort Frontenac.

Braddock started from Alexandria, full of confidence and expecting a walk-over. Franklin warned him as to the dangers of Indian warfare. But Braddock committed the error of despising his enemy. "The savages," he said, "may be formidable to your American militia; upon the King's regulars and disciplined troops it is impossible that they should make any impression." And so, on the 19th June, with a light heart, he left Dunbar with his main body at Fort Cumberland, and with Washington, Gates, Gage, (all after-

wards famous,*) Sir Peter Halket, young Shirley and others, and 1,200 troops, he pushed forward. On the 8th July, after a toilsome march, he reached the confluence of the Mononghela and Youghiogeny rivers, within twelve miles of Fort Duquesne. The French were dispirited; their Indians at first refused to fight, but the gallant Beaujeu said, "I shall go, and will you suffer your father to go alone? I am sure we shall conquer," when, inspired by his confidence, the Indians departed to lay the ambuscade which had been determined on by the French.

On the 9th July, Braddock forded the Mononghela, and fell into the ambush prepared for him. The enemy was invisible, the English were exposed to a murderous fire, the regulars were driven together in a confused mass. Some of the provincial troops, wiser than Braddock, attempted to retrieve the fortunes of the day by adopting the forest mode of warfare and taking to cover. This shocked Braddock's parade-ground prejudices; he swore at the men as cowards, threatened to turn his own guns upon them, and compelled them to form again in the open. The result was disastrous. Braddock and his officers exposed themselves fearlessly. The general had five horses shot under him, and at last received a mortal wound; Washington had two horses killed under him, and four bullets through his clothes, but he was untouched, being reserved for a greater work. Gates and Gage were wounded, and out of eighty-six officers, twenty-six were killed, amongst them Sir Peter Halket. Young Shirley, the general's secretary, was also killed. The Virginian troops suffered severely, of three companies only about thirty men were left; of the regulars, 714 were killed or wounded. At last the regulars broke and ran, leaving guns, ammunition, baggage, provisions, everything, in the hands of their exultant foes.

The arrival of the beaten English at Dunbar's camp caused a panic, and, on the 12th July, Dunbar destroyed £100,000 worth of stores and baggage,

* After the capture of Ticonderoga by Burgoyne in 1777, Gates, who had previously been associated with Schuyler, was appointed to command the American Northern Army. On the 7th October, the battle of Stillwater was fought, and on the 9th Burgoyne retreated to Saratoga, where he was blockaded by Gates, and on the 19th surrendered to him, with his army of 5,642 men, arms, baggage, &c. In the same year Gates was appointed President of the Board of War. On August 6th, 1780, being then in command of the Southern Army, Gates was totally defeated by Cornwallis, at Camden, S. Car., and took no further part in the war. Gage succeeded Amherst in 1763 as commander of the British forces in America, and in 1774 was appointed General-in-Chief. He was also Governor of Massachusetts. In April, 1775, he sent an expedition to seize colonial stores at Concord, which brought about the Battle of Lexington, the first of the war of Revolution. He was sent home in the same year.

and fled. Braddock had lived only long enough to reach the camp, and was buried near Fort Necessity.

Braddock's expected victory had been discounted both at home and in the British American provinces, and the news of his utter rout was received with dismay. But it woke up the Assembly of Pennsylvania, which immediately voted £50,000 for the King's use, to be partly raised by taxing all estates within the province. The other governors reiterated their opinion that nothing could be done without an Act of Parliament.

The immediate result of Braddock's defeat to the outlying English settlements was terrible. The Indians came down upon them like wolves, and the unfortunate settlers suffered all the horrors which can be imagined at the hands of a lewd, cruel, and daring foe. So ended the first of the four expeditions.

The second expedition was that against Crown Point under Johnson. Johnson was an Irishman, who had gone out to America about 1734 to take charge of a large tract of land belonging to his uncle, Sir Peter Warren. He built himself two fortified houses in the Mohawk Valley, Johnson Castle and Johnson Hall. The latter still stands in the modern Johnstown. Here, by his personal qualities, and his scrupulously fair dealings with the Indians, he quickly acquired an extraordinary influence over them, and was soon appointed superintendent of Indian affairs. Tall and handsome in person, courageous, eloquent and manly, though vain and ambitious, he used his power over the Indians to the great advantage of his country. Picquet and Joneaire, always intriguing with the natives in the interest of France, had no more dangerous antagonist than Johnson. He was appointed Major-General on the breaking out of hostilities in 1755.

Johnson's force consisted of some 3,400 men, composed of New England militia and some Indians. Early in August, Lyman, in command of the New England contingent, had built Fort Lyman (afterwards re-named Fort Edward by Johnson, in compliment to one of the King's grandsons) on the Hudson, at the southern end of the portage of twelve or fourteen miles between that river and Lake Champlain. At the end of the same month, Johnson led his forces across the portage and began to form a camp on the southern shores of Lake Sainte Sacrement, to which he gave the name of Lake George.*

* Apropos of the horn, which forms the text of this note, Parkman's description of Johnson's provincials is interesting: "The soldiers were no soldiers, but farmers and farmers' sons, who had volunteered for the summer's campaign. One of the corps had a blue uniform faced with red. The rest wore their daily clothing.

Meanwhile Dieskau, who had been about to advance against Oswego, was ordered to oppose Johnson instead. He soon had under his command, at Fort Crown Point, 700 regulars, 1,600 Canadians, and 700 Indians. Eager to distinguish himself, Dieskau, taking with him 200 regulars, 600 Canadians and 600 Indians, passed up Lake Champlain, intending to attack Fort Edward by night. But his guides lost their way, and when four miles from the Fort on the road to Lake George, the Indians, always independent and claiming their share in the councils of war, refused to attack the Fort, but declared themselves ready to attack the army on Lake George.

On the 7th September news of Dieskau's movements reached Johnson's camp, and Ephraim Williams, with a thousand provincials and 200 Indians, was sent back to relieve Fort Edward. The party fell into an ambuscade, and was compelled to retreat. Williams was killed, as was also Hendrick, the Mohawk chief, who by reason of his great bulk was compelled to ride, and who was the only man on horseback. Johnson's camp was still without intrenchments, and Dieskau had reckoned upon rushing it, and entering with the fugitives. But his Indians balked, and the Canadians hesitated. Dieskau advanced with the regulars, still hoping by example to induce the laggards to support him. But both Indians and Canadians hid themselves, and the French regulars had all the glory to themselves. The New England men, believing that their all depended upon their success in the expedition, fought with enthusiasm. They were excellent marksmen, and under their deadly fire almost all the French regulars fell. Dieskau was wounded in three places by the American fire, and, as his men turned to flee, received an incurable wound from the bullet of a renegade Frenchman. He was taken prisoner, and it required all Johnson's authority and influence to protect him from the scalping knives of the exultant Iroquois. He was sent prisoner to England, afterwards exchanged, and died in Paris a few years later, never having recovered from the effect of his wounds.

Johnson, though strongly urged to follow up his success and attack

"Blankets had been served out to them by the several provinces, but the greater part brought their own guns;
"some under the penalty of a fine if they came without them, and some under the inducement of a reward.
"They had no bayonets, but carried hatchets in their belts as a sort of substitute. At their sides were slung
"powder-horns, on which, in the leisure of the camp, they carved quaint devices with the points of their jack-
"knives. They came chiefly from plain English homesteads—rustic abodes, unpainted and dingy," &c., &c.
A close examination of the horn shows that the map is cut with a knife, and not with a graving tool.

Ticonderoga, where the French had taken up their position, declined, alleging that his men were tired, and that he shortly expected a formidable attack, and contented himself with entrenching his camp, and erecting a wooden fort, the ill-fated Fort William Henry, on the shores of Lake George. Owing to his inaction his success was a barren one ; nevertheless, he was rewarded with a gratuity of £5,000 and a baronetey.

The third of the four expeditions was that of Shirley against Niagara. Shirley had been a barrister, and was no soldier. He was governor of Massachusetts, and on Braddock's death had succeeded him as commander-in-chief, much to the disgust of Johnson, who could not brook his interference. Shirley's force consisted of about 500 men of the New Jersey Regiment, and of the 50th and 51st Regiments ; in all nearly 2,000 men. His design was to go to Oswego, thence to Niagara, which he was to take, and there await the victorious Braddock. His forces mustered at Albany ; at Schenectady he embarked with about two hundred of his men, and ascended the Mohawk to the great carrying place between the Hudson and Wood Creek, which flows into Lake Oneida.* In twenty days after leaving Schenectady, the force reached the paltry little fort at Oswego. By this time the disheartening news of Braddock's defeat had reached Shirley, and many of his boatmen and waggoneers had deserted on hearing it. Under the altered circumstances Shirley was compelled to change his plan. He dared not proceed to Niagara, lest the French should cross Ontario from Fort Frontenac in his absence and take Oswego, thus cutting him off from his base. Not wanting in courage, he proposed to risk attacking Niagara, with 600 troops and some Indians, leaving the rest to defend Oswego in case of attack. But the weather was stormy, and the boats, besides being insufficient in number, were not fitted to encounter rough water on the lake. Taking counsel with his officers, he reluctantly agreed with them that the enterprize must be abandoned for the time, and that all that could be done was to strengthen Oswego, and build more vessels, so as to be ready by the following spring. At the end of October, Shirley returned to Albany, leaving 700 men at Oswego under Mercer. The unfortunate General had lost two sons in the campaign ; one

* This Wood Creek must not be confounded with the stream of the same name on the portage between the Hudson and Lake Champlain.

killed with Braddock, the other dying of a fever contracted at Oswego. Thus three out of the four expeditions had ended in practical failure.

The fourth expedition was that intended to reduce Acadia, according to the English notions of the boundaries of that province. Since the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, Acadia had belonged to England, except Cape Breton which had been taken by the English in 1745, but restored to France by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. The Acadians, a simple, agricultural population, would have been happy and contented enough, but for their pseudo friends, the priests. These ministers of the Gospel of peace and order, taught, urged, and, by threats of murder and pillage by the Indians in this world, and purgatory and hell in the next, compelled the unfortunate rustics to rebel against British authority, and to refuse to take the oath of allegiance. Many of the Acadians had been induced to leave their fertile fields and cross the boundary of British Acadia, to live in misery and semi-starvation on French ground. The English had done all they could to conciliate and promote the prosperity of a peaceful and industrious population. But the French Government and its agents, disregarding treaty obligations, perfidiously strove to make the Acadians disloyal, with heartless disregard to their true interests. The savage and pitiless missionary, Le Loutre, was now the principal agent in fomenting rebellion and discontent. The French ardently desired to recover Acadia. The unhappy inhabitants, afraid of the English, yet more afraid of Le Loutre with his Indians and demons, were between two fires, but inclined to assist the French if necessary, though what they really desired was to be left alone.

There is no doubt that the French contemplated an invasion of Acadia, and reckoned on the co-operation of the Acadians. When this became known to Lawrence, the Governor of Nova Scotia, he wrote to Shirley, who ordered John Winslow to raise 2,000 volunteers, which he did. The command was given to Lieutenant-Colonel Monekton. The men mustered at Boston, and, after some delay, embarked on the 22nd May, reached Annapolis on the 26th, and on the 1st June the ships anchored within five miles of the French fort Beauséjour.

Monekton landed, encamped his men outside Fort Lawrence, within sight of the French fort, and, being joined by the regulars forming the garrison of Fort Lawrence, on the 4th of June, advanced to the attack. On

the 16th, a chance shell falling through a bomb-proof and killing several men, created such a panic in Fort Beauséjour that Vergor, the commandant, was compelled to surrender, being permitted the honours of war. Le Loutre escaped, but was afterwards taken when on his way to France, and kept, out of mischief, a prisoner in Jersey for eight years. Fort Gaspereau, twelve miles from Beauséjour, answered a summons to surrender by instant compliance, and Winslow took possession of it. There remained but the French fort at the mouth of the St. John. On the 30th June, Captain Rous advanced to attack it, whereupon the French set fire to and abandoned it.

Then followed the sad incident of the deportation and dispersion of the malevolent Acadians, upon which so much false sentiment has been lavished in prose and verse. The measure was a necessary one, and was rendered so by the obstinacy and ingratitude of the misguided peasants. After the taking of Beauséjour and the other forts, they had ample opportunity of redeeming their errors, and might have remained where they had made their homes, on the easy terms of giving a simple pledge of fidelity and allegiance to the King of England and his successors. They refused to do this, without reservations which were inadmissible. They preferred to remain subjects of the French King, after being fairly warned of the consequences and given ample time to consider their reply. There was no alternative but to remove them, and disperse them amongst more loyal subjects. This distasteful and melancholy task was carried out with firmness, but without unnecessary severity, the principal avoidable hardship being inflicted by the delay in providing transports for their conveyance. The Acadians might have been Acadians still, but for the malign efforts of the French Government and priests. The sad consequences unhappily fell upon the ignorant dupes, and not upon the real offenders.

So ended the four English enterprises which combined to make the campaign of 1755, and which were to have broken the power of France in America. Of the four expeditions the only one resulting in appreciable success was that against the French forts in Acadia. Against this trifling gain were to be set the failure of the attempts on Niagara, Frontenac, and Crown Point, and the defeat of Braddock. The latter had wretched sequelæ. The sufferings of the colonists on the western borders of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia at the hands of the Indian demons, hounded on by

the French, were terrible. Their houses were burnt, their families massacred, or, worse, carried into captivity by the Indians. Washington, with his 1,500 Virginians, had the hopeless task of protecting an extended frontier against the attacks of active and ubiquitous bands of foes, who in an hour would appear, commit their deeds of horror, and be gone, no one could say whither. The Assemblies, safe, far from the frontier, behaved in a dastardly manner, refusing supplies, and leaving the wretched borderers to their choice of two shocking alternatives—either to die at the hands of the Indians, or of starvation.

CHAPTER VI.

MONT CALM AT OSWEGO. 1756.

SINCE the capture of the French ships, the "Lys" and "Aeolide," by Admiral Boscawen, the English navy had been employed in harrying the maritime trade of France with great effect. Hundreds of vessels were seized, and 8,000 French sailors taken prisoners. The French complained of this as "nothing but a system of piracy on a grand scale, unworthy of a civilised nation. In time of full peace, merchant ships have been seized to the value of thirty millions of livres." The pretext for the apparently unjustifiable action of the English, was French encroachment on British territory in America. The excuse was not accepted in Paris, and the "piracies of this insolent nation" wounded the French deeply.

In February, 1756, Vaudreuil sent Léry, with 362 men, to capture the English Fort Bull on Wood Creek, Oneida, and Fort Williams on the Mohawk, both built to protect the portage. Fort Bull was being used as the dépôt of stores and ammunition for the intended spring campaign, and was guarded by thirty of Shirley's provincials. The small garrison defended itself to the last, the French beat down the doors, the English still fought desperately, till they were all killed, with the exception of two or three, who, as a last resource, hid themselves. Léry blew up the fort, and retired without attacking Fort Williams, as Johnson was on the march up the Mohawk with reinforcements. The loss of stores and munitions of war seriously delayed the English operations, and gave the French time to secure their posts on Lake Ontario, which was done by the end of June.

After the failure of the Oswego campaign in the autumn of 1755, Shirley had formed his plans for the spring, and laid them before a council of war at New York. Like the former schemes they were quadripartite. A strong force was to seize the French Forts at Niagara, Frontenac and Toronto; another force was to deal with Ticonderoga and Crown Point; a third was to capture Fort Duquesne, and a fourth was to create an embarrassing

diversion by passing down the Chaudière and falling upon the French settlements about Quebec. The council approved the scheme, but the provinces would not afford the means of carrying it out. Two parts of it, viz., the attacks on Fort Duquesne and on the Quebec settlements were abandoned. For the other two, on a grant in aid being promised by Parliament, New England provided men for the attack on Ticonderoga and Crown Point, with Winslow as commander, while Shirley proposed to lead the expedition to Lake Ontario in person. But while he was still engaged in recruiting his numbers and overcoming preliminary difficulties, unfriendly hands and tongues were at work, and Shirley found himself superseded in command temporarily by Colonel Webb, who was to be succeeded by General Abercrombie, who was eventually, in his turn, to give place to the Earl of Loudon. Webb and Abercrombie arrived in June, the Earl in July. While awaiting his successors at Albany, Shirley had rebuilt the Fort on Wood Creek, Oneida, destroyed by the French in the previous March, and gathered stores at the posts on the way to Oswego, in preparation for his favourite project of driving the French from Lake Ontario.

Meanwhile a notable figure had appeared upon the scene, Louis Joseph, Marquis de Montcalm-Gozon de Saint Véran. He was a man of noble character, scholarly, pious and honourable, a soldier from his youth up, happily married and the father of ten children, with an intense affection for his family and love of the peaceful duties of a country life, and the domestic repose of his chateau of Candiac. Appointed to command in Canada he left all that he cared for with reluctance, but, like a true soldier, without hesitation, to encounter the dangers and hardships of a campaign in the backwoods. The Chevalier de Lévis was his second in command, and Bougainville, afterwards renowned as a navigator, was one of his aides. Montcalm, with about 1,200 men, arrived in the St. Lawrence in the early part of May, and at once reported his arrival to Vaudreuil at Montreal, in person.

During the winter the French had been fortifying or strengthening already existing defences at Niagara, Ticonderoga and Frontenac. They were warned of the English preparations and aware of their plans, endeavoured to anticipate them, and himself to strike the first blow by descending on Oswego, and so obtaining the entire command of Lake Ontario. On the 18th May England had declared war, and on the 9th June, France did the same.

At the end of May, the New England and New York men had mustered at Albany, and moved up the Hudson to Halfmoon. Here there were rapids, and the advance was by road to Stillwater, thence by river to Saratoga, thence by road to Upper Falls (Fort Miller), thence by boat to Fort Edward, and thence across the portage to Fort William Henry, where the army was to embark, on Lake George, for Ticonderoga. While Winslow was busy with his preparations, Sir William Johnson was employed in counteracting the intrigues of the French with the Indians friendly to the English, and the more dangerous effects of the tricks and dishonesty of the English and Dutch rascals, who plundered and deceived the natives, and inclined them to join the more specious French. After much trouble, exuberant verbosity on both sides, great expenditure of wampum, and a considerable consumption of rum, Johnson was entirely successful, and Piequet and the rest of the French intriguers were checkmated.

Meanwhile, Shirley from his head-quarters at Albany, was directing the preparations for the expedition to Ontario, and impatiently desiring the assembling of the Five Nations at the latter place. He organised a body of armed boatmen, under Colonel Bradstreet, to carry his stores and provisions to his posts on the Mohawk, and the Oneida portage. Vandreuil had sent de Villiers with 1,100 men to cut off the communication between Oswego and Albany, but Bradstreet successfully took a convoy to Oswego. On his return, when about nine miles from the fort, de Villiers fell upon him, in the sudden manner characteristic of backwoods warfare. After a temporary discomfiture, Bradstreet rallied his men and put the French to rout. He was prevented by heavy rains from following up his success, and returned to Albany with two prisoners, eighty French muskets, and a number of knapsacks, having lost between 60 and 70 of his own men.

During the winter the unfortunate garrison at Oswego had suffered severely from hunger and disease, and a large number died. Pepperell's regiment, the 51st, quartered in Fort Ontario on the opposite side of the river, suffered less. Letters from Mackellar, the engineer, declared the Forts to be incapable of defence. There was a third fort, New Oswego, nicknamed Fort Rascal, a miserable affair. These things made Shirley very anxious.

On the arrival of Webb and Abercrombie at Albany with reinforcements, at the end of June, Shirley resigned his command, and was sent to New York to await the Earl of Loudon's coming, and to report to him how things stood.

The report did not please the Earl, and when he reached Albany, he abandoned the Ontario Expedition, and resolved to concentrate his forces against Ticonderoga.

Winslow was now at Lake George with about half his men, the remainder being at Fort Edward under Lyman or in the posts along the Hudson. According to the reports of Earl Loudon's officers the forts were in a very insanitary condition, even for that time, when sanitary engineering was yet unborn, and there was much sickness of body, and according to the chaplains, "nothing but a hurry and confusion of vice and wickedness." The vices were principally "curseing and swareing," omitting to say grace at meals and to attend daily prayers, and not shaving often enough.

On the 12th August, Loudon sent Webb, with the 44th Regiment and some of Bradstreet's boatmen, to reinforce Oswego. Shirley's anxiety about that place proved to have been too well founded. When Webb reached the portage, he learned that the French had taken Oswego, and was told that they were advancing 6,000 strong. Staying only to fell some trees to choke Wood Creek and obstruct the passage of the enemy, and burning the forts built for the protection of the portage, Webb turned and fled to German Flats on the Mohawk. Dismayed at the blow, Loudon ordered Winslow to abandon the idea of attacking Ticonderoga, and to remain at Lake George to check any French advance in that direction.

The French had heard of the English advance against Ticonderoga, and determined to make a feint against Oswego, not without considering the possibility of turning it into a real attack. Leaving Lévis in command at Ticonderoga, Montcalm hastened to Montreal, left there on the 21st July, and reached Fort Frontenac on the 29th, embarked there on the 4th August, joined Rigaud and Villiers, who had been encamped at Sackett's Harbour, and, on the 10th, with a force of 3,000 men, was before Oswego.

Fort Ontario, the strongest of the three forts at Oswego, stood on high ground on the right bank of the river, but it was only a wooden star-shaped erection, and was useless as a defence against artillery. Fort Pepperell, or Old Oswego, in which Colonel Mereer, the commandant, was, stood on the opposite side of the river, and about a quarter of a-mile further on was the third work, New Oswego, also called Fort George or Fort Rascal.* After

* There is a good view (often wanting however) of Oswego, in Smith's History of New York.

a day's firing, during which Montealm was digging trenches and getting his guns into position, Colonel Mercer, considering that Fort Ontario must be knocked into splinters directly the artillery opened upon it, signalled to Pepperell, who was in command of its garrison of 370 men, to cross the river and join him at Oswego. This was safely accomplished. At nightfall Montealm began a battery on the height on which Fort Ontario stood, and before morning had there twenty guns, some of which had been captured from Braddock, and nine of them in position. The English unprepared for an attack from the east, had to form a hasty rampart with pork barrels, and to shift their guns to that side. "Exposed to their shoe-buckles," according to the French account, they made a gallant fight for some time. But Montealm had sent Rigaud with a force of Canadians and Indians to cross the river, which was effected without the knowledge of the English, and the sudden appearance of the enemy around the forts served to dishearten the garrison. They had kept up their spirits while they had Mercer to encourage them, but now the commandant was cut in two by a cannon shot and a panic ensued. The women, of whom there were 100 in the fort, begged that it might be surrendered. A hasty council of war was convened, and the white flag hoisted. Bougainville was sent to arrange the terms, and the English surrendered as prisoners of war. As usual the victors went straight for the rum barrels, and in the drunken tumult which ensued some of the prisoners were tomahawked by the Indians, and Montealm had much ado to prevent a general massacre.

To gratify the Indians, Montealm burned the forts and the vessels in course of construction, and destroyed everything he could not carry away. The exultant Piequet raised a tall cross and planted the arms of France on a pole among the ruins.

The French took 1,600 prisoners, 120 cannon, six ships of war, 300 boats, a quantity of ammunition and provisions, and three chests of money. "It was a glorious victory" for the French. Nothing could have been more gratifying to them, than this scarcely hoped-for destruction of the bugbear Oswego, as the success left them undisputed masters of Lake Ontario, and free to use the bulk of their forces to repel the threatened attack on Ticonderoga, and, perhaps, to drive back the English and seize Albany.

England was indignant at the surrender, but the garrison had fought well under great disadvantages. If Webb had started a month earlier,

as he ought to, and would have done if the English had not been so unwise as to "swop horses while crossing a stream" by superseding Shirley, the result might have been different. Everything was against Shirley. The refusal of some of the provinces to give any aid; the apathy and dilatoriness of those which did consent; the number of untrained men, and the inferior quality of most of his officers. His scheme was a good one, and with money, material and good management would have had, at least, a good chance of success. He was adopting measures for strengthening Oswego, and would doubtless have carried them out, if the matter had not been taken out of his hands. Loudon, who was himself chiefly to blame, made a scapegoat of Shirley, and with insult and contumely, ordered him to go to England.

Loudon, now at Fort Edward, with 10,000 men under him, 3,000 of whom were at Fort William Henry, under Winslow, and the remainder at the various posts between there and Albany, waited Montcalm's attack. Montcalm, in a strong position at Ticonderoga with upwards of 5,000 men, did not move.

But a petty warfare was actively carried on. On the western borders of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia, the French Indians were busy with tomahawk and scalping knife in the outlying settlements. The forts, however feeble, were generally let alone. A few were attacked by the French with varying success; and the English, under Colonel Armstrong, a settler of Cumberland, surprised and destroyed the Delaware town of Kistanning, between Venango and Fort Duquesne, the centre from which many of the Indian border raids started, killed Jacobs, a chief who had been the terror of the English borders, and released eleven English captives.

Many Indian war parties were sent out from Ticonderoga to harass the English. On the return of one of them victorious, Bougainville writes:—"The very recital of the cruelties they committed on the battlefield is horrible. The ferocity and insolence of these black-souled barbarians make one shudder. It is an abominable kind of war." The English retaliated from Forts William Henry and Edward. Some of their expeditions showed great audacity. One Lieutenant Kennedy, with five followers, passed all the French posts, took some prisoners, burned a store of provisions between Montreal and St. John, and returned to Fort William Henry safe, but nearly starved. Israel Putnam, with six followers, descended Lake George, and made

a complete reconnaissance of Ticonderoga and all the French outposts. But the most notable of these daring adventurers was Major Robert Rogers of New Hampshire, who, with his rangers, performed deeds of incredible hardihood. Day and night, summer and winter, these men were continually among the French, reconnoitering, seizing sledges, or capturing prisoners, one of the latter being a sentinel taken from the very gates of Ticonderoga. So the autumn wore away, and in November the French began to withdraw to Canada, leaving a small garrison at Ticonderoga, and the English to New York, Philadelphia, and Boston. Major Eyre with 400 regulars was left to guard Fort William Henry.

The monotony of Eyre's winter exile was unpleasantly varied by a somewhat disastrous expedition of Rogers, who, having captured some French sledges and prisoners between Ticonderoga and Crown Point, was cut off by a large body of the enemy. Fourteen of Rogers' party were killed and six taken prisoners, Rogers himself and some others being wounded; but Rogers led the survivors back to Fort William Henry.

CHAPTER VII.

FORT WILLIAM HENRY. 1757.

IN March, 1757, Vaudreuil commenced the year's campaign by sending an expedition, under his brother Rigaud, against Fort William Henry. The attack was only partly successful; against the fort itself, it entirely failed, but the French burnt the buildings outside, and retreated, having suffered heavy loss.

Loudon had projected, for the opening of his campaign, the reduction of Louisburg in Acadia, to be followed possibly, if fortune favoured, by an attack upon Quebec. As usual, the news of the English project had reached the French before it was ripe for execution, and three French expeditions had been sent to Louisburg in anticipation of the attack. Admiral Holbourne with his fleet of fifteen ships, and 5,000 men, was late at the place of rendezvous, Halifax, where Loudon awaited him. The force consisted altogether of 12,000 men, who were landed and drilled for weeks.* Then news reached Loudon that the French combined fleets in Louisburg consisted of twenty-two ships of the line and some frigates, carrying 1,360 cannon, and that the garrison consisted of 7,000 men. Louisburg was a very strong fortress, and Loudon, despairing of success, took his troops back to New York, leaving Holbourne to go to Louisburg to endeavour to tempt the French Admiral, La Motte, with his fleet to come out and fight him. But this wily Gaul knew when he was well off, and Holbourne "had his trouble for his pains." Thus this costly expedition, damned by needless delay, ended in a miserable fiasco.

The watchful Montcalm did not fail to take advantage of the absence of Loudon with most of his troops, and determined to make a descent upon Lake George, and strike a blow for France and St. Denis. He assembled his force of 7,600 men, consisting of Canadians, regulars, and an Indian

* Lord William Hay was put under arrest for publicly describing these dilatory exercises as "Keeping the courage of His Majesty's soldiers at bay, and expending the nation's wealth in making sham fights and planting cabbages, when they ought to have been fighting the enemies of their king and country in reality." In 1759 he demanded a court martial, and was tried in London, but died before the proceedings were closed.

contingent, in which forty-one tribes were represented, at Ticonderoga, and, leaving a detachment to hold the fort, and sending Lévis with 2,500 men by land, he embarked with the remainder of his force, and, passing down Lake George, joined Lévis before Fort William Henry.

The Fort stood close to the Lake on low ground, and, a little to the East, across a marsh was an entrenched camp on a higher level, on the spot where Fort George was erected two years later. Colonel Monro of the 35th regiment, a Scotchman, was in command. He had with him in the fort barely 500 men, and in the camp were 1,700 more. The fort mounted seventeen cannon and several mortars and swivels, and there were six guns in the camp.

Montcalm, who had taken prisoners some of an English reconnoitring party, was well informed of the position and weakness of Monro's force. He sent a summons to surrender, which received for answer a message of defiance. Thereupon Montcalm commenced his siege works on the west side of the Lake, and sent La Corne to hold the road to Fort Edward and cut off Monro's communications with that post. Webb was at Fort Edward, with 1,600 men according to Parkman, though Bancroft says 4,000, and Monro sent several messengers to him asking for aid. But it was the same Webb who had retreated in such a dastardly way the year before, abandoning Oswego to its fate, and his nature had not altered in the meantime. He sent to New England asking for reinforcements for himself, to enable him to go to the relief of Monro, though he must have known they could not arrive in time, but to Monro he sent letters advising surrender. Montcalm's men killed one of the messengers and found Webb's letter on the body. After battering the English Fort for several days, Montcalm sent Webb's letter to Monro, hoping that he would follow the advice contained in it. But the gallant commandant returned a polite message refusing to surrender, and the siege was recommenced with redoubled vigour. The English suffered heavily. Three hundred had been killed or wounded, small-pox was raging in the fort, all their large pieces had been burst or disabled and their ammunition was nearly exhausted. Then only, on the 9th August, did Monro hoist the white flag.

The fort was surrendered, on the terms that the English should march out with the honours of war, and proceed to Fort Edward under a French escort; the troops were not to serve again for eighteen months, and all stores

and munitions of war were to be left to the French, except one field piece, which the English were to retain as a compliment on their gallant defence.

Montcalm, sufficiently well acquainted with the Indian nature by this time, dreaded lest he should not be able to restrain the savage passions of his allies, flushed as they were by victory. He called a council of their chiefs, and exacted a promise that they would restrain their followers. He took the further precaution of forbidding the issue of spirituous liquor, but no sooner had the English evacuated the fort to join their companions in the camp, than the Indians rushed in and began to plunder. They murdered the helpless sick and wounded in their beds. The afternoon was one of terror in the English camp. The French Indians stalked about it, showing plainly enough, by their actions, what they would like to do.

In haste to depart, the English were ready before their escort. At five o'clock in the morning several Indians entered some huts in the camp where 17 wounded English lay, and killed and scalped them all, in the presence of the English surgeon Whitworth, and of La Corne and some other French officers, who, according to the sworn testimony of Whitworth, did nothing to prevent the outrage. But worse was to follow. As the English marched out of the camp, the Indians fell upon them, and a massacre of men, women and children ensued. Montcalm and his officers, it is said, endeavoured to stay the tumult, at great personal risk to themselves. But accounts differ as to this. Jonathan Carver, who was present, declares that he saw French officers looking on unconcerned. Colonel Frye gave similar testimony. It seems probable that Montcalm, and some of his superior officers, regretted the massacre and endeavoured to prevent it, but that the bulk of the French officers and men were not altogether displeased at the occurrence, and took no trouble to stay the slaughter; many were killed, how many it is impossible to say, though Parkman has gone fully into the matter and gives the original reports of some of the witnesses in an appendix to his "Montcalm and Wolfe." The accounts of Father Roubaud, a French chaplain, Carver, Whitworth and Lévis, who were all present, differ greatly. Certainly some forty or fifty were killed, besides the sick and wounded who were slaughtered in the fort and camp, and some 700 were made prisoners, stripped or otherwise ill-used. Some of the English took refuge in the fort, and, after being kindly treated by Montcalm, were sent under escort to Fort Edward; many took to the woods, of whom some found their way to Fort Edward or the English

settlements; but a considerable number must have perished in the woods, either of want or exposure, or at the hands of the Indians. Two hundred English prisoners were carried off by the Indians in triumph, in defiance of the French.

The fort was demolished, and its wooden materials and those of the barracks were used to burn the bodies of the slain, and on the 16th August, Montcalm with his troops re-embarked, and left the region peopled only by the ghosts of the dead.

So ended the short and sharp campaign of 1757. Fortune had not yet smiled upon the English arms, perhaps because Heaven helps only those who help themselves. An incompetent minister at home, serving a grasping obstinate and spiritless king, incompetent commanders in America, jealousy and divided counsels in the Provincial Assemblies, want of money and men, had all combined to produce results disastrous to British interests, and discreditable to those in authority. The French possessed the valley of the Ohio, the command of Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence, while England, thwarted at all points, was hemmed into a narrow strip of territory, which it seemed presumptuous to call its own, "between the devil and the deep sea."

CHAPTER VIII.

LOUISBOURG AND FORTS DUQUESNE AND FRONTENAC. 1758.

THE year 1757 had closed gloomily for England, not in America only. She was in conflict with France in Europe and Asia also. In Europe ill-fate pursued her even while her allies were triumphant, and while Frederick the Great was pursuing his victorious career, the Duke of Cumberland was compelled to sign a disgraceful capitulation at Kloster Zeven. The expedition against Rochefort had failed, Minorca had been lost, and the ministry had endeavoured to shield itself from the consequences of its bungling by the dastardly murder of the unfortunate Admiral Byng. Only in Asia was there a ray of brightness, for Clive had won the Battle of Plassey, avenged the tragedy of the Black Hole of Caleutta, and laid the foundations of the British Empire in India.

But the star had already risen which was to dispel the clouds hanging over England. A man was beginning to make his influence felt, who was to save his country from her humiliation, and set her feet upon the road leading her to the dominant position which she afterwards attained in the world.

William Pitt, born in 1708, elected M.P. for Old Sarum in 1734, who had held several minor offices, was appointed Secretary of State in November, 1756, and though he was dismissed by the King on the 5th of April, 1757,* as no man could be found to supply his place, on the 29th of June following he was again in office with control of war and foreign affairs, and leader of the House of Commons. He left to the venal Newcastle, the profits and patronage of office, and was content to use his own far greater

* "The case of the nation was at this time (after the dismissal of Pitt) truly deplorable: we were engaged in a war that had hitherto proved unsuccessful, we began to despair of our military virtue, and our public spirit seemed to be extinguished, faction raged with the utmost violence, our operations were suspended, and while there was no ministry, there was no plan to follow The name of Hanover was at this time (after the despatch of the Duke of Cumberland to Hanover) so unpopular in England, that the people after the example of their late patriot Minister, would not hear of a man or a shilling being sent thither."—*An Impartial History of the late War.* London, 1763.

influence, like a true patriot, to promote the well-being of his country. The first thing essential, to his mind, was to crush France, anywhere and everywhere, but especially in America, and to this end he directed his policy. Hated by the King, and envied by the aristocracy, he feared neither; adored by the people and rendered strong by their support, he acted with assurance. He was a man with a clear head, a firm will, and a definite purpose, and from the moment that he held the reins of power, England's prospects grew brighter, and her hope and confidence revived.

Three tasks Pitt set himself in America; first, to take Louisbourg and afterwards Quebec; secondly, to destroy Ticonderoga and Crown Point; and, thirdly, to take Fort Duquesne; to which must be added a fourth scheme, long contemplated by Bradstreet, for the capture of Fort Frontenac on Lake Ontario. He entrusted Colonel Jeffery Amherst (afterwards Lord Amherst) then serving in the German war, with the execution of the first task, and made him a Major-General; he recalled Loudon and put Abercrombie, of whom he had no great opinion, in command of the expedition against Ticonderoga, associating with him a brilliant young soldier, Lord Howe, who, he trusted, would be the real leader; the reduction of Fort Duquesne he assigned to Brigadier John Forbes.

A fleet under Admiral Boscawen was despatched from England for Louisbourg early in the year, Amherst following, while another fleet under Admiral Osborn was charged to keep the Straits of Gibraltar and prevent the French fleet under Admiral La Clue, which had been fitted at Toulon for America, from leaving the Mediterranean. Osborn performed his task, while Sir Edward Hawke intercepted and broke up a French squadron and a fleet of transports, which were about to sail from Rochefort.

Parkman describes Louisbourg as the strongest fortress in French or British America. It was garrisoned by upwards of 3,000 troops, and as many more men manned the five line-of-battle ships and seven frigates lying in the harbour. Against these forces Boscawen had twenty-three line-of-battle ships and eighteen frigates and fireships, while Amherst had 11,100 regular troops and 500 provincials. Under Amherst was Brigadier James Wolfe, already distinguished as a daring soldier, and destined to become immortal as the captor of Quebec.

The English appeared off Louisbourg on the 1st June, and after an obstinate and gallant defence, Drucour, the French commander, surrendered

on the 27th July. Five thousand six hundred and thirty-seven fighting men were made prisoners, and eighteen mortars and 221 cannon, with a large quantity of arms, munitions of war and stores, were taken. The success of the English was complete, and the only drawback was the length of the siege, which, as Druceur had intended, prevented Amherst from assisting Abercrombie. Wolfe had added to his laurels during the siege, and as soon as it was over was anxious to be led at once against Quebec. But Amherst, too deliberate to make the effort in time, contented himself with sending various officers to subdue and occupy the adjacent French territory, and sailed himself, with six regiments, too late, to aid Abercrombie.

About the beginning of June, Abercrombie with over 15,000 men, more than two-fifths of whom were regulars, the rest provincials, was at the head of Lake George. With him was Lord Howe, whom Wolfe described as "the best soldier in the English army." Howe shared the hardships of the rank and file, set an example of self-denial to officers and men, and was followed and idolized by the soldiers. Rogers, with his rangers, formed part of the force, Gage commanded the light infantry, and Bradstreet his corps of drilled boatmen. Lord Howe commanded the main body of the regulars, consisting of the 55th, the Royal Americans (60th), the 27th, 44th, 46th, and 80th regiments, and the 42nd Highlanders, the latter being under Major Duncan Campbell, of Inverawe, whose strange, weird story of foreboding and fulfilment should commend itself to the Psychical Society.*

On the 5th July the force was afloat on Lake George in 1,200 boats, and advancing to the attack. On the 6th they encountered and drove in the French outposts, and by noon the troops were landed on the west side of the

* Campbell gave sanctuary to a murderer, not knowing that the victim was a near kinsman of his own. Though told of this by the pursuers who followed hot foot, he still thought himself bound to conceal the fugitive. The ghost of the murdered man appearing to Campbell that night adjured him not to shield the murderer, but this only induced him to urge his guest to flee. The ghost came twice more, and the last time left, saying, "Farewell Inverawe, till we meet at Ticonderoga." Campbell had never heard of the place but remembered the strange name, and when some years after he was ordered to attack the place, recalled the vision and the warning. His comrades, who knew his story, tried to deceive him as to the locality, but the night before the battle the ghost appeared again, and in the morning Campbell said, "I have seen him! You have deceived me! He came to my tent last night! This is Ticonderoga! I shall die to-day!"—See Parkman's "Montcalm and Wolfe," Appendix G, where it appears that the story has been told in *Legendary Tales of the Highlands*, by Sir Thomas Dick Lauder; in the "Atlantic Monthly," 1884, by Miss Gordon Cumming; in "an English Magazine," not specified by Parkman. A metrical version of the same story, with "Cameron" for "Campbell," by R. L. Stevenson, is in *Scribner's Magazine* for December, 1887.

lake just above the narrows, and on the march towards Ticonderoga in four columns. Langy with the French advance party retreating, before Rogers and his rangers, through the dense woods, lost his reckonings, and knew neither where he himself was, nor where were his friends or his enemies. Upon him advanced 200 rangers, forming the head of the principal column, led by Lord Howe and Major Israel Putnam. A challenge, a reply, a volley from the unseen French, and a short sharp skirmish followed, during which a chance bullet found its billet in Lord Howe's heart. Of the French party of about 350, fifty only escaped, 148 were taken prisoners, the rest were shot, or drowned in attempting to cross the rapids. The English loss was small in number, but great in kind, for among the few lost, Lord Howe, the soul of the army, lay dead.

Abercrombie thus deprived of his brains, at once began to bungle. The troops were kept under arms all night without necessity, and in the morning were marched back to the landing place. This dilatory movement was fatal to the success of the expedition.

Montcalm, a brave man, and a good soldier, with only about one-fourth of the number of the British force under his command, had long been hesitating whether he should not abandon Ticonderoga and fall back on Crown Point. Abercrombie's false move gave him time to reach the peninsula on which the fort of Ticonderoga stood, and by dint of severe labour to form a fortification with felled trees, in a zigzag line along the top of a ridge which ran across the neck of the peninsula, a defence well nigh impregnable to musketry. Abercrombie's artillery lay at the landing place, and he had force enough to bring it up, and, with it, knock the wooden breastwork into splinters. He left the guns where they lay. He might have attempted the difficult and dangerous, but still feasible, plan of outflanking the French by passing along the low ground on either side of the peninsula. But the French prisoners had exaggerated the force under Montcalm, and had reported that considerable reinforcements were hourly expected. Abercrombie, though perhaps not wanting in valour, was no soldier, and of the three courses open to him, he elected to take that which was impossible, hoping by the sheer bravery of his troops to carry Montcalm's position before help could reach the French. But Lévis arrived during the night of the 7th July with reinforcements, which, however, only brought up the total number of the French force to 3,600 effective fighting men.

Accordingly, on the morning of the 8th July, the attack began. The French pickets were driven in, and the regulars advanced to storm the breastwork. They could not see the French, their ranks were broken by the obstructions both natural and artificial which strewed the ground, while a murderous fire was poured upon them from behind the breastwork. For an hour they strove in vain to gain a footing on the rampart; they got close to it, but further progress was stopped by sharpened boughs of trees provided to that end by the French engineers. At last they fell back, declaring the place impregnable. Abercrombie, safe at the saw mills, a mile and a-half away, ordered a fresh attack. The soldiers obeyed, and fought gallantly, fiercely, for their blood was up, but vainly. At five o'clock a fresh attack was made by two English columns combined. So desperate was it that for a time Montcalm's defences were in danger. Attack after attack was repulsed, to be again renewed; the Highlanders, a force organized by Pitt, fought, as they always have done, splendidly; here, their major, Campbell of Inverawe, found the ghostly warning justified, and received his death wound. Captain Campbell and a few of his men succeeded in surmounting the breastwork, and were at once bayoneted by the French. The attack still continued, and, at six o'clock, another supreme effort was made with as little success as the former ones. The English loss in killed, wounded, and missing was 1,944; that of the French, exclusive of Langy's detachment, 377. On the 9th July, with 13,000 men, still more than three to one of the French, and with cannon which he had not attempted to use, Abercrombie re-embarked his troops and fled. Though at the place of embarkation panic seems to have seized the British troops, who left behind a quantity of provisions and baggage, no men could have fought more gallantly, or have been worse commanded. Abercrombie's conduct after the defeat was as unworthy of a soldier as his rashness in courting it had been. He ordered Cummings, commanding at the camp at the head of Lake George, to send all sick and wounded and the heavy artillery to New York, but before the order could be obeyed, the general himself appeared seeking safety in, what must be called, flight. The provincial troops nick-named him "Mrs. Nabbyeromby."

What a contrast was the camp on Lake George now, to the same but a few days before. Then the troops were full of hope and confident of victory; now, they were depressed and disgusted, and cursed their wretched com-

mander, and with reason. Here the rivalry between the regular and provincial officers and men had time to find vent; the former treated the latter with neglect and cool contempt; the provincials believing, with some reason, that they were at least as good soldiers as the others, greatly resented this treatment. "The deportment of British officers in the seven years' war," writes Parkman, "no doubt had some part in hastening the revolution."

The regulars in camp were employed in destroying the siege works erected by Montcalm before Fort William Henry in 1757, the strictest discipline was observed, and punishments were frequent. Fever and dysentery broke out, owing to bad food and neglect of sanitary measures, and did its fatal work freely. Many of the troops had been sent to the rear, and the English force on Lake George was considerably diminished.

Meanwhile Montcalm, at Ticonderoga, was strongly reinforced, and set about strengthening his defences. He sent frequent war parties to harass the English, generally with success. Abercrombie ordered Rogers, with his rangers, to retaliate. He did so, but falling into an ambush near Fort Anne, lost 49 men killed, and Putnam and several others fell into the hands of the enemy. On the other hand, Rogers' party killed more than 100 of the French and Indians. This affair spoiled, if it did not altogether destroy, the appetite of the French war parties for fighting.

But fortune was more favourable to England in other directions and under more able commanders. Bradstreet had long contemplated a descent upon Fort Frontenac (the modern Kingston), which lay close to the point where the St. Lawrence flows out of Lake Ontario, and would be, if marked on the map on the horn, nearly under the left foot of the deerslayer depicted thereon. The scheme was approved by Loudon and warmly supported by Lord Howe, but Abercrombie at first threw cold water upon it. At last however, he yielded, and gave Bradstreet 3,000 men to enable him to make the attempt.

Bradstreet ascended the Mohawk from Albany and reached Oswego, which he found a wilderness. There, on the 22nd August, he embarked his forces with the addition of some Oneidas, whom he persuaded with difficulty to join him, so much was their confidence shaken by the English defeat at Ticonderoga, and on the 25th reached Fort Frontenac. The French commander, De Noyan, with his garrison of only 110 men surrendered on the morning

of the 27th without a struggle, and with the fort the whole naval force of France upon the lake. Nine armed vessels, a vast quantity of provisions and munitions of war, sixty cannons and sixteen mortars and a store of goods for the Indian trade, fell into the hands of the English. Bradstreet knocked the fort to pieces with the French guns, destroyed what he could not carry off, and reserving two of the best French vessels as transports, returned, laden with plunder, to Oswego. Thence, leaving 1,000 men at Fort Stanwix, then being built by Brigadier Stanwix, he led his men back to Albany. This was a most important success. Before it, France had complete command of the Lake, England could not even approach it. Now the tables were turned. Niagara and Fort Duquesne were cut off from their sources of supply, and the power of France on the Lake was destroyed.

The remaining expedition of the year was that against Fort Duquesne under Forbes. Early in July the advance guard under Bouquet was encamped at Raystown (now Bedford). Washington, who had been busy in attempting in vain to protect the frontier settlers from the French Indians, was now at Fort Cumberland, and the question arose whether the advance should be by way of Fort Cumberland and along Braddock's old road, or whether a new road should be made in a more direct way, further north through Pennsylvania. Washington was for the old road; Forbes, Bouquet, and Sir John Sinclair, the Quarter-master General, a foul-mouthed bully and an inefficient soldier, were for the new road, which was eventually decided upon. This dispute gave rise to some soreness between Forbes and Washington.

Now began a diplomatic contest between the English and French for the alliance of the Indians, especially the Five Nations, the Delawares, and Shawanoes. These dusky warriors were wavering. They wished to join the winning side, and knew not which it was to be. Promises, lies, flattery, and cajolery were freely used by both sides, and there was a vast expenditure of the mysterious wampum. The English, by the exertions of Sir William Johnson and the Moravian Missionary, Christian Frederic Post, a brave and simple-minded man, who had great influence with the Delawares, were successful in the end.*

* Post, with heroic courage, entered the lions' den like another Daniel, except that his action was voluntary. While with the Indians at Fort Duquesne the French demanded that he should be given up to them, and, being refused, offered large rewards for his scalp. He performed a dangerous service, the value of which to the English at that time, can scarcely be exaggerated.

Forbes, who was wretchedly ill, did not leave the frontier town of Carlisle till the 11th August, and reaching Shippensburg, lay there helpless till the middle of September. But Bouquet was busy, driving a road over the densely wooded slopes of the Alleghanies. Forbes describes the country as "an immense uninhabited wilderness, overgrown everywhere with trees and brushwood, so that nowhere can one see twenty yards." Bouquet built Fort Bedford at Raystown, and advanced some forty miles to Loyalhannon Creek, where he formed another dépôt.

In September Major Grant, having obtained the permission of Bouquet, advanced with about 800 men, to strike a blow which he hoped would dishearten the French. Early in the morning of the 14th, he was within a mile and a half of Fort Duquesne, and sent Major Lewis with half the men to make a feigned attack, hoping to draw the French out of the fort, and lead them into an ambuscade which he had laid for them. But Lewis lost his way in the dark and returned. The blow had miscarried. Grant, underestimating the French force, then sent a few Highlanders to burn a building outside the fort, and despatched Lewis with 200 men to assist Captain Bullitt to guard the baggage two miles to the rear. A body of Pennsylvanians was sent far to the right, Captain Mackenzie, with some Highlanders to the left, and Captain Macdonald with more Highlanders into the open plain in front of the fort to reconnoitre. Having thus scattered his forces, to encourage the men, Grant ordered the drummers to beat the reveille. The sound awoke the French with a vengeance, they came pouring out of the fort, routed Macdonald's men, shot their captain, and drove in Mackenzie's party upon Grant's post. Here a spirited fight of some three-quarters of an hour's duration was kept up, until the Highlanders were seized with a panic, and retreated in disorder. Lewis, hearing the firing, returned to aid Grant, but took a wrong road and passed him. Bullitt and his Virginians made a stout defence until two-thirds of them were killed, and thereby saved Grant's force from massacre. Grant, Lewis, and some of their men were taken prisoners, and the English loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners was 273 out of a total of 813. The remaining 540 reached Loyalhannon.

This disastrous attempt had been made without Forbes' knowledge, and, though distressed, he bore the reverse bravely. The French followed to Loyalhannon, but were beaten off. They were in an awkward position. The destruction of Fort Frontenac, and of the stores there, had left them in

want. The Louisiana militia and many of the Indian allies went their several ways. Ligneris, commanding at Fort Duquesne, was obliged to send away most of his forces because he could not feed them, and remained to hold the fort with a small garrison. The English were hardly better off. Bad weather and heavy rains had reduced the new road to a deplorable condition, their draught cattle were half-starved and rapidly failing, and they had no means of bringing up fresh supplies when those at Fort Bedford and Loyalhannon were consumed.

Forbes lay, still sick, at Fort Bedford; in the beginning of November he was carried to Loyalhannon. On the 18th November, 2,500 chosen men marched upon Fort Duquesne, to within a day's march of which Washington and Armstrong had pushed a road. At midnight, a heavy explosion was heard in the English camp from the direction of Fort Duquesne. It was Ligneris blowing up his defences. When the British force, advancing with caution, reached the place next day they found the enemy gone, the fort destroyed, and the barracks and storehouses burnt. The French had retreated to Presqu'isle and Venango (Fort Machault). The English built a stockade to protect the garrison which was to be left to secure the position, which Forbes named Pittsburg. A regular fort was built by General Stanwix in the following year. Captain West, a brother of Benjamin West, the artist, with a party of men went in search of the remains of Braddock's men, succeeded in his ghastly quest, and gave decent burial, in a common grave, to what was left of the victims of Braddock's brave pigheadedness. Lieutenant-Colonel Mercer, with 200 provincials, was left to protect Pittsburg. A stronger garrison was not possible on account of the scarcity of provisions.

The conduct of this expedition reflects the greatest credit on Forbes. Wretchedly ill as he was,* his foresight, his successful dealing with the Indians, his judicious delay, all proved him to be a capable general, and his success was well deserved. The mishap to Grant's party, was through no fault of his, as he was ignorant of the plan, until its failure was reported to him. But as soon as his task was accomplished, his health rapidly became worse, and he died in Philadelphia in the following March.

* "So far I had wrote you the 26th, but being seized with an inflammation in my stomach and liver, the sharpest and most severe of all distempers, I could proceed no farther; * * * I shall leave this as soon as I am able to stand; but God knows when, or if ever I reach Philadelphia."—Forbes's Letter reporting the Capture of Fort Duquesne.

The campaign of 1758, conducted under the auspices of Pitt, was the first bringing any success to the British arms in America. Of the four expeditions which constituted it, three had been successful; Louisbourg, Frontenac, and Fort Duquesne had fallen, and France was dispossessed of her strongest fortress, of the key to Lake Ontario, and the command of the Ohio Valley. Still she held Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain, and Niagara on Lake Ontario, with the smaller forts Presqu'isle, Le Bœuf, and Venango. The wheel of fortune was turning, and carrying England upward.

CHAPTER IX.

NIAGARA, TICONDEROGA AND QUEBEC. 1759.

IN April, 1759, the English garrisons in Acadia were cheered by the news of an intended expedition against Quebec. Pitt, a good judge of men, had chosen James Wolfe to command, and had made him a Major-General.

The fleet, under Admiral Saunders, sailed from Spithead on the 17th February, 1759; twenty-two ships of the line, with frigates, sloops of war and many transports. The force under Wolfe, including the American contingents, amounted to about 9,000 men, rather less than more, and, for various reasons, only three-fourths of the number originally contemplated. Unable at first to enter Louisbourg Harbour, which was blocked with ice, the fleet took refuge at Halifax; but in May the whole force, except ten ships under Admiral Durell, which had gone to the St. Lawrence to cut off ships expected to arrive from France, was assembled at Louisbourg, and on the 6th June sailed from thence for Quebec.

Vaudreuil, the French Governor of Canada, was a vapouring and boastful man, jealous of Montcalm, always claiming for himself alone the credit of every success, and casting the blame of every reverse on others. But he failed to foresee from what quarter the fatal attack was to come. The French rulers recognized that Canada was in a perilous position. Bourlamaque was sent to hold Ticonderoga, and prevent any advance by the British from that quarter; La Corne was sent to guard the rapids on the St. Lawrence and arrest any movement from Lake Ontario. Every able-bodied man, every boy strong enough to lift a gun to his shoulder, was called out. None were to be left at home but the old, the sick, the women and children. The Bishop exhorted, reproved and warned the people, and ordered masses, prayers and processions, to avert the danger which threatened faithful Canada. Vaudreuil was as busy as a bee, boasted of his zeal, the excellency and completeness of his preparations and vowed that he would yield nothing, but hold his ground even to annihilation. Meanwhile, Bougainville arrived with the stunning news of the expedition

against Quebec. On receipt of this intelligence all the French, except those with Bourlamaque and La Corne, were ordered to Quebec. Every energy was devoted to strengthening the defences of the town. Fortifications were erected, fireships and floating batteries were prepared, and the welcome of the English promised to be a warm one. The defending force, within and without the walls of the apparently impregnable fortress, was at least 16,000 men. All was prepared, nothing was wanting but the foes for Vaudreuil to slay. Still the English came not. Provisions were scarce, and while Bigot, the intendant of Canada, and Cadet, the government contractor, two of the most corrupt knaves who ever cheated a national treasury, lived in riotous and extravagant luxury, the people starved on two ounces of bread a day.

Durell was at the Isle aux Coudres, and on the shore opposite some Canadians captured three English midshipmen, who had gone ashore for a boyish spree. The prisoners were taken to Quebec, where these mendacious young gentlemen increased the consternation of the Canadians by greatly exaggerating the strength of the English.

On the 26th June the English were anchored off the Island of Orleans, and that night a small party of rangers, under Lieutenant Meech, effected a lodgment upon the island, and the next morning found that the French had abandoned it. The whole British army then landed, and Wolfe was able to see the enormous difficulty of the task assigned to him. In the face of the enemy the braggart Vaudreuil became subdued. Montcalm was supreme. He determined to remain in his strong position, and take no needless risks. Wolfe's best hope was in Amherst, who was advancing against Ticonderoga, and whose success there would compel Montcalm to weaken his own force by sending troops to oppose him.

On the day on which Wolfe's troops landed, one of those terrific hurricanes which from time to time devastate parts of North America, greatly damaged the British ships and destroyed many of their boats. On the 28th June, Vaudreuil's fireships were sent down upon the invader's fleet, but they were lighted too soon. Some drifted ashore of themselves, others were grappled and towed ashore by the British sailors. The attack was absolutely harmless, and the French only afforded their enemies a magnificent pyrotechnic display, at an enormous cost.

Wolfe, unable to draw the astute Montcalm from behind his fortifications, seized the heights of Point Levi, opposite Quebec, and established batteries

there. A force was sent by Montcalm to dislodge him, but the French became demoralized before they were within striking distance, and returned ignominiously to Quebec, having done no execution except by three times in their trepidation firing on parties of their own friends. Wolfe's bombardment did great damage to the lower town, and the non-combatants fled, but the fortifications could scarcely be reached by the shot. On the 9th July, Wolfe landed below the River Montmorenci, and erected batteries on the high ground opposite Montcalm's fortified camp.

On the 18th July, the British frigate "Sutherland," sailed past the town and safely reached the river above it, compelling Montcalm to send troops from Beauport to guard the shore newly threatened. The "Sutherland" was soon joined by a fleet of boats carried over Point Levi, and launched above the town. On the 28th, Vaudreuil sent a huge fire raft down the river, but the English sailors grappled it and towed it ashore, where it burnt out harmlessly.

On the 31st July, Wolfe attacked Montcalm's camp on the Montmorenci, but a premature rush by the Grenadiers, who in their eagerness did not wait for orders, resulted in the repulse of the English with heavy loss. Wolfe retired, and the gallic cock crowed and clapped his wings, also prematurely. Wolfe, brave and determined as he was, began to despond. His health, never strong, was breaking down under the strain of anxiety, and hope deferred. With a force too small for the gigantic task assigned to him, and which from the exigencies of the case he had to divide into at least four sections, he lay before the citadel, waiting and hoping in vain for help from Amherst, from June to the beginning of September.

But while Wolfe was thus chafing with impatience before Quebec, the English were busy in other quarters. Pittsburg was to be reinforced and victualled; Oswego was to be rebuilt, Niagara to be taken, and an advance to be made into Canada, by way of Ticonderoga and Lake Champlain.

Amherst, the Commander-in-chief, himself took the conduct of the last expedition. With 11,000 men he reached Lake George at the end of June, and began to build Fort George on the site of the entrenched camp outside the ill-fated Fort William Henry. On the 21st July he embarked for Ticonderoga. Bourlamaque, the French commander, made no attempt to defend the entrenchment which, in a far more crude condition, had baffled Abercrombie's heroes the year before. He made a show of defending the

fort however, and caused a slight loss to the British, but in the night, in obedience to Vaudreuil's orders, he evacuated the fort also, leaving a burning match to blow up the magazines. A large reward, offered by Amherst, produced no volunteer willing to find and cut the match, and in due time an explosion took place which shattered, but did not wholly destroy, the fort. While Amherst, who had a craze for erecting forts, was repairing the damaged works, his scouts brought word that the French had abandoned Crown Point also*, and retreated to the Isle aux Noix. Amherst took possession of the fort, and talked about advancing at once into Canada; but fort building, ship building and road making delayed him, and Wolfe was to receive no help from him.

Meanwhile, Prideaux, with 5,000 regular and provincial troops, left a garrison at Fort Stanwix, established a block-house at the east end, and a fort (Fort Brewinton) at the west of Lake Oneida and descended the Onondaga to Oswego. Here he left Colonel Haldimand, with nearly half his men, while he himself, with Sir William Johnson, advanced against Niagara. La Corne, with a mixed body of French, Canadians, and Indians, coming from the St. Lawrence, fell upon Haldimand while he was fortifying his post, hoping, by seizing Oswego, to cut off Prideaux. But he was repulsed.

Prideaux reached Niagara, which was commanded by Pouchot, while another fort called Little Niagara, about a mile and a half higher up the river, was held by Joncaire-Chabert, a half-breed. Joncaire burned his fort and joined Pouchot in Fort Niagara. Prideaux opened the siege in form, and was almost immediately killed by the accidental bursting of one of his own guns. Johnson succeeded to the command, and vigorously bombarded the French fort. Aubry and Ligneris, with 1,300 men, were on their way from Presqu'isle to succour Pouchot. But the English met them on the way, routed them, and cut them to pieces. The survivors fled, burned Presqu'isle, Le Bœuf, and Venango, and retreated to Detroit. As soon as Pouchot had satisfied himself of the full extent of this disaster, he surrendered Niagara, and, with the garrison, was taken as a prisoner to New York.

Amherst sent Brigadier Gage to supersede Johnson, and ordered him to

* "Before he (Bourlamaque) evacuated the fortress, he charged all the mortars, guns, muskets, &c., up to the very muzzles, with powder and shot, fixing port fuses to their vents, and then setting fire to the buildings of the fort, left it; which made it impossible to approach it without great danger; but a sergeant of regulars desired the General's permission to cut down the colours, which were then flying amongst the flames, and being permitted, he brought them off safe, for which he was rewarded with ten guineas."—*Complete History of the War, 1764.*

descend the St. Lawrence and attack the French posts on that river. But Gage prudently considered the project impracticable and so reported.

Bourlamaque was anxiously expecting an attack from Amherst, at the Isle aux Noix, but the weather had broken, and when Amherst at last embarked, he was driven to take shelter in Ligonier Bay, and successive storms and severe frosts determined him not to persist in his advance. Amherst had been successful so far as he had gone, but he ought to have gone much further and been far more successful. The building of Fort George was waste of time; he ought to have prepared for his success at Ticonderoga by building ships beforehand, so that he might have at once followed up the retreating French. But he was dilatory, and, when Fortune had favoured his arms, he was not ready to take the further gifts she offered.

Major Rogers, with his rangers, was sent in September against the Abenakis at St. Francis. Arriving safely at the north end of Lake Champlain he hid his boats and marched for St. Francis. His boats were discovered by the enemy, and a party of 400 French started in pursuit of him. He determined to push on, and outstripping his pursuers, surprised St. Francis, slew 200 Indians, took some prisoners, and burned the town. But the French were hard on his heels. Many of the English were killed or taken, others died of hunger and exhaustion, and the rest, including Rogers, with great difficulty, reached the English settlements.

Wolfe meanwhile, weary of waiting and fearing the effects of the winter, had been engrossing his brains for a plan of attack offering a hope of success. With his own eyes he had marked a cove, still known as Wolfe's Cove, on the river above the town, at the foot of the Heights of Abraham, from which a zigzag, narrow path climbed the precipitous cliff. He could see that there was a small French post at the head of the path, but determined that this should be his road. He had now a small fleet under Admiral Holmes above the town, and Bougainville, with 1,500 men had been detached by Montcalm to watch the shores.

Wolfe carried out his desperate plan with patient caution. He used every means to deceive the enemy as to his real purpose, and on the night of the 12th September all was in readiness. His intention was, with less than 5,000 men, to climb the Heights of Abraham, to defend which Montcalm could bring twice the number. Fortune favours the bold, and this was certainly so in Wolfe's case. Bougainville above the town had been led to expect an attack

upon himself; Admiral Saunders below the town deceived Montcalm by a feigned attack on Beauport. No Frenchman dreamed of the real point aimed at. The night was dark, and Wolfe's boats, drifting without sail or oar down the river with the tide, were, if seen at all, mistaken by the French for their own boats, which often used to bring down supplies in this silent and secret manner. Vergor, in command of the post at the head of the path (the same man who had surrendered Fort Beauséjour) had gone to bed, and had permitted most of his men to go away to their harvesting; the troops ordered to encamp on the plains of Abraham were, for some unknown reason, posted on the St. Charles; these and other circumstances, fully stated by Parkman, conspired to assist Wolfe. The French sentinels, two of whom challenged the boats, were cleverly deceived by specious replies in their own language, an advance party was disembarked at the chosen cove, and a forlorn hope of twenty-four men climbed the path and fell upon Vergor's tents. Vergor and one or two of his men were captured and the rest escaped. Wolfe, with his main body waited below in the boats, till he heard sounds convincing him that his men had gained a footing, and then, feeble as he was from ill health, clambered up the steep. By daybreak the English were drawn up on the heights. Wolfe's position was a desperate one, there was no escape from it but by the gate of victory. He chose his position on the plains of Abraham and waited.

About six o'clock the regiment of Guienne appeared on the ground where the English ought to have found them. Montcalm, arriving soon after, disturbed and amazed at the number of the English and their position, fully realized the seriousness of his position. He sent for more troops and more guns, but here the divided command in the French army helped the English. Vaudreuil detained the troops for the protection of Beauport, while Rameay, commanding the garrison at Quebec, sent only three guns instead of twenty-five asked for. Nevertheless, Montcalm decided to attack at once. The British lines received the French fire with firmness, and reserved their own until the enemy was within forty yards. Then the British fusilade burst forth with deadly effect, and threw the mingled masses of French, Canadians and Indians into confusion. The British were ordered to charge, and the bayonet, and the Highlanders' claymores did bloody work. Wolfe, at the head of the Grenadiers who had done such good service at Louisbourg, led a charge against the French left. Thrice he was wounded, the third time mortally. He was carried to the rear, and lived just long enough to hear that the French were beaten.

Montealm, carried by the stream of fugitives towards the town, received a shot through the body, when near the walls. He died on the 14th, "happy," as he said, "that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."^{*} "It was not a retreat," said a French officer, "but an abominable flight, with such disorder and confusion that, had the English known it, 300 men sent after us would have been sufficient to cut all our army to pieces." Only a body of Canadians made a gallant but ineffectual stand at the Côte St. Geneviève. Vaudreuil was but just starting from Beauport, four hours after he had had the alarm, and just as the rout was beginning, but he made up for the dilatoriness of his advance, by the promptness of his retreat. In spite of the remonstrances of his officers he abandoned Quebec to its fate the same night, leaving everything behind, and fled to Jaecques Cartier. There he was joined by Lévis, from Montreal, and at his instigation prepared to return to relieve Quebec. But Quebec had already surrendered. Ramesay, deserted by Vaudreuil, and having his parting orders not to hold out if the English threatened to storm the fortress, was compelled, by the conduct of his own troops, most reluctantly, to yield. Vaudreuil followed his usual practice, and claimed all the credit of Montealm's successes, leaving him only the discredit of his reverses, and shamefully slandering the dead general in his letters and despatches.

Wolfe's letters to Pitt[†], written while he despaired of success, had created a despondent feeling in England, which was changed to incredulous joy by the news of the fall of Quebec, which followed the letters in a few days.

* Montealm's epitaph in the Church of the Augustines in Quebec concludes thus:—"He fell in the first rank, in the first onset, with those hopes of religion which he had always cherished, to the inexpressible loss of his own army, and not without regret of the enemy's. XIV. September, A.D. MDCCLIX., of his age XLVIII. His weeping countrymen deposited the remains of their excellent General in a grave which a fallen bomb, in bursting, had excavated for him, recommending them to the generous faith of their enemies." The original is in Latin.—(Wynne's "British Empire in America," 1770.)

† "The obstacles we have met with in the operations of the campaign, are much greater than we had reason to expect or could foresee; not so much from the number of the enemy (though superior to us) as from the natural strength of the country, which the Marquis de Montealm seems wisely to depend upon. By the list of disabled officers (many of whom are of rank) you may perceive, Sir, that the army is much weakened. By the nature of the river, the most formidable part of this armament is deprived of the power of acting, yet we have almost the whole force of Canada to oppose. In this situation there is such a choice of difficulties that I own myself at a loss how to determine. The affairs of *Great Britain*, I know, require the most vigorous measures; but then the courage of a handful of brave men should be exerted only where there is some hope of a favourable event. However you may be assured, Sir, that the small part of the campaign which remains, shall be employed (as far as I am able) for the honour of his Majesty, and the interest of the nation," &c.—Wolfe to Pitt. Sept. 2, 1759.



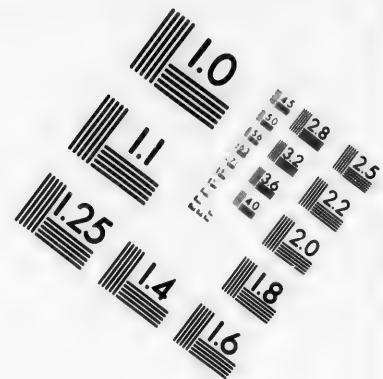
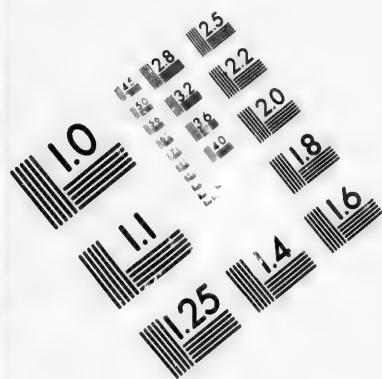
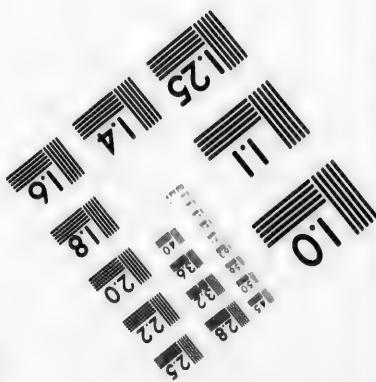
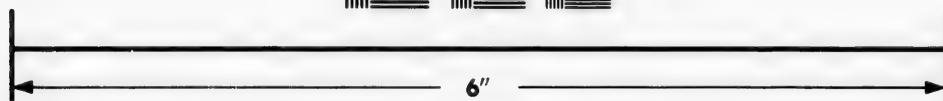
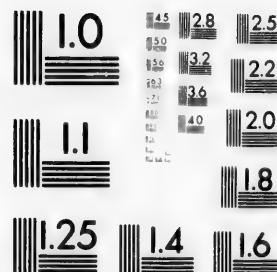
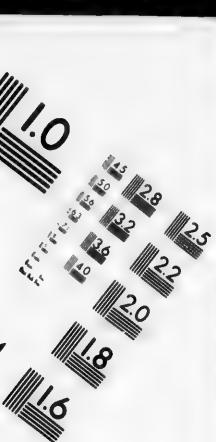


IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (MT-3)



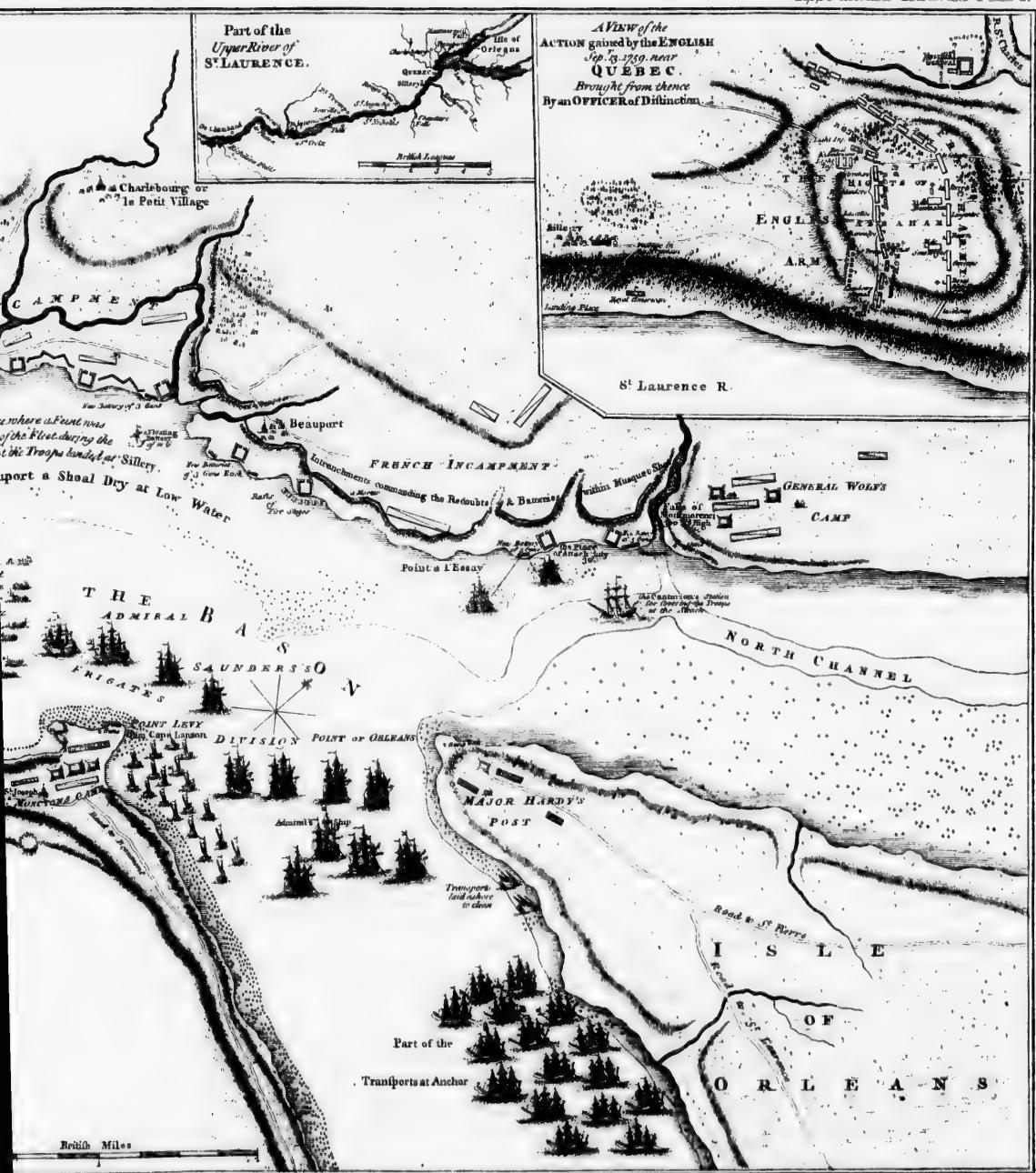
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CHAPTER X.

1760, MONTREAL. 1763, TREATY OF PARIS.

BRIGADIER MURRAY was left in command of the ruined Quebec. The British fleet sailed away while it might, before the winter should seal the waters of the St. Lawrence. Murray established fortified posts at Old Lorette on the St. Charles River, and at Sainte Foy, on the north bank of the St. Lawrence. The remainder of the troops were withdrawn from their camps to the shelter of the walls, for the winter. In November the French ships which had gone up the St. Lawrence out of reach of the British to Batiscan, and other places above Quebec, attempted to escape by descending the river. Seven or eight succeeded and four failed. The French harassed the English outposts and there were frequent skirmishes at Lorette, Point Levi, Calvaire, near St. Augustine and other places, in which the English were uniformly successful. Rumours that Lévis was coming to retake Quebec had been heard ever since the English had been in possession of it, and, in fact, that capable officer was making great preparations at Montreal to that end. On the 27th of April, 1760, he reached Sainte Foy, at the head of between 8,000 and 9,000 men, well provided with artillery, and attended by ships carrying reserves of ammunition and supplies. Murray, by a strange chance, heard of Lévis' approach and marched out to Sainte Foy with 3,000 men to meet him. Murray appears to have hesitated whether he should defend Quebec itself, or fortify the ridge of Sainte Foy and defend that, or give Lévis battle. He somewhat rashly chose the latter course, with the result that, after a gallant struggle, equally creditable to both parties, he was repulsed, with the heavy loss of one-third of his force, and driven back on Quebec. Lévis began the siege in form, and, had the two forces been left to themselves there is little doubt that Quebec must have been retaken. Lévis was expecting help from France, Murray the like from England. All depended upon which of the succours should be the first to come. On the 9th May, the British frigate "Lowestoffe" arrived, and announced that a British squadron was in the St. Lawrence, and on the 15th the ships

appeared. The frigates "Diana" and "Lowestoffe" passed above the town to destroy the six French ships under the command of Vaquelin. After a stout resistance, Vaquelin was captured and five of his ships burned. The other, after throwing her guns overboard, escaped. The destruction of the vessels, with the stores of provisions and ammunition, made Lévis' success hopeless, and he at once raised the siege, and retreated with such precipitation that Murray, who at once pursued, was unable to overtake him.

The St. Lawrence was now completely blockaded, the French were short of men, provisions and ammunition, and there were no means of obtaining further supplies. Nevertheless, Vaudreuil and Lévis did not abandon hope. They stationed bodies of men at Pointe aux Trembles, Jacques Cartier and Repentigny, to stop Murray from moving up the river; and La Corne, at the Rapids above Montreal, to check any advance from Ontario; Bougainville was already at Isle aux Noix, on the Richelieu, to guard the route by Lake Champlain.

Amherst determined to advance into Canada, by three simultaneous movements along the lines so carefully guarded. He assigned to himself the difficult task of leading the main army, by way of Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence; Murray was ordered to ascend the river from Quebec, and Brigadier Haviland to enter by the Champlain route. If the three expeditions should arrive at Montreal together the plan promised success; if not, there was hope for Vaudreuil and Lévis, who might overcome the three forces in detail.

On the 15th July Murray embarked at Quebec with 2,400 men. He passed Jacques Cartier and Les Trois Rivières, without noticing the resistance offered to him, confident that if Montreal could be captured the minor posts must fall with it. At the village of Sorel he found Bourlamaque with 2,000 or 3,000 men, and on the opposite bank Dumas with another force, both having orders to march along the banks, keeping abreast of the English flotilla. By a judicious proclamation and well-timed severity in enforcing it, Murray succeeded in inducing most of the Canadians to lay down their arms and return to their homes, though Vaudreuil issued a counter-proclamation to the unhappy colonists, threatening them with death if they should comply with the English orders. Arrived at Isle Sainte Thérèse, just below Montreal, Murray encamped and waited for Haviland and Amherst.

Meanwhile Haviland had advanced by Lake Champlain with 3,400 men, driven Bougainville from Isle aux Noix to St. John, and from St. John to

Chambly, whence the discomfited French retreated to join Bourlamaque on the St. Lawrence. Murray and Haviland were now in communication and only awaited the arrival of Amherst.

Amherst sailed from Oswego on the 10th August with upwards of 10,000 men, besides 700 Indians under Sir William Johnson. On the 15th he reached Oswegatchie (Swegage), the site of La Présentation, Father Picquet's mission station. Here he destroyed the French armed brig, "Ottawa," and a little further on stayed to knock to pieces Fort Lévis, commanded by Pouchot, the same who had been defeated at Niagara. The fort had been built the year before on an islet in midstream, a little below La Galette. In three days Pouchot surrendered the ruins of his fort. The English Indians wished to kill the prisoners, and on Johnson's firmly refusing to permit them to do so, the greater number went away in dudgeon.

Amherst lost many boats and men in passing the dangerous rapids below Fort Lévis, but on the 6th September landed with his forces at La Chine, nine miles from Montreal. On the following morning Murray landed on the north bank below the town, while Haviland lay on the south bank opposite in peace, for Bougainville and Bourlamaque had crossed to Montreal with the few regulars remaining with them, all the Canadians having deserted.

Under the almost hopeless circumstances in which he found himself, Vaudreuil advised surrender and drew up terms of capitulation, which were unanimously approved by a council of war, and Bougainville was despatched to submit them to Amherst. The English general insisted that all the French troops in Canada should lay down their arms, and should not serve again during the war. Against this hard condition the French officers kicked in vain, and Lévis tried to use it to spur Vaudreuil on to resistance. But Amherst justified his demand by referring to "the infamous part the troops of France had acted in inciting the savages to perpetrate the most horrid and unheard-of barbarities," and to "other open treacheries and flagrant breaches of faith," and refused to yield. So, on September 8th, Vaudreuil signed the capitulation. Canada and all its dependencies were yielded to Britain. French officers, civil and military, and French troops and sailors were to be sent to France. All civilians who wished to return to France might do so, and those who wished to do so might remain, retaining all their property; religious freedom was assured, and religious communities were to be left in full possession of their property and privileges.

The fighting in America was over. The battle of Plassy, won by Clive in June, 1757, had left England masters of the French in India too. In Africa, France had lost Senegal, and in the West Indies, Guadaloupe and Dominica. In Europe a larger and more complicated struggle, involving other combatants* was still going on. Frederick the Great, with only England as an ally, had all Europe against him, and was becoming exhausted by the superhuman efforts which had carried him so far through his victorious career. Reverse became more frequent with him than victory; but, undaunted and indomitable, he kept his face to all his foes. George II., a German at heart, supported Frederick for the sake of Germany; Pitt did the same for the glory of England and the discomfiture of her foes. But in October, 1760, George II. died. His grandson, George III., cared little for Germany, and a good deal for peace; Pitt's enemies, who were numerous and powerful, saw a prospect of the great minister's overthrow by means of a peace, to which, they knew, he would not be a consenting party. France sorely needed repose, and negotiations were actually commenced, but Pitt had still strength enough to break them off. In 1759, Charles III. had succeeded Ferdinand VI. on the throne of Spain, and in 1761 the "Family Compact" was enlarged, with a view of forming an offensive and defensive alliance between the Bourbon rulers of France and Spain. Pitt, suspecting the existence of this secret treaty, wished to attack Spain. The king refused, and Pitt resigned. Frederick's only ally thus lost, his prospects seemed gloomy, when the death of the Czarina Elizabeth and the accession of Peter III. converted Russia from a foe into an ally, and brought also peace with Sweden. The secret of the Treaty having leaked out, Bute, who had succeeded Pitt as prime minister, was forced into a war with Spain, and Pitt's rejected advice was justified by the event. Leaving Frederick to deal with Austria and the Germanic Empire, England had to face France and Spain. Rodney, with his fleet, and Monckton, with his troops, took Martinique, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Santa Lucia from the French,

* The following extract shows the French view of the situation:—"L'armée commandée par le Prince Ferdinand de Brunswick est devenue une armée Angloise: l'Electeur d'Hanovre, le Duc de Brunswick, le Landgrave de Hesse, leurs troupes & leurs pays ont été réunis pour la cause d'Angleterre, & à l'occasion des différends de cette Couronne avec la France; de sorte que les hostilités en Westphalie & en Basse Saxe ont eu et ont encore le même objet que les hostilités en Amérique, en Asie & en Afrique, c'est à dire les discussions élevées entre les deux couronnes sur les limites de l'Acadie & du Canada."—[Mémoire Historique sur la Négociation de la France & de l'Angleterre, depuis le 26 Mars, jusqu'au 20 Sept. 1761.]

while the Earl of Albemarle and Sir George Pococke wrested Havana from Spain, which was also deprived of Manila and the Philippines. A temporary reverse for England was the capture of St. John's, Newfoundland, by the French, but the place was speedily recovered by Lieutenant-Colonel Amherst, and its late captors made prisoners.

France, heavily burdened with debt, and without money, now found immediate peace necessary. George III. and Bute desired it also, and negotiations were re-opened. It was fortunate for France that Bute was at the head of affairs instead of Pitt, who would have dealt her harder measure. The result of the negotiations, as affecting England, France, and Spain in America, is shown in Notes E and F. The cession of Louisiana by France to Spain, was made by a separate, but contemporary, arrangement, and was intended to compensate Spain for the loss of Florida, which her alliance with France had cost her. The Treaty of Paris (see Note E) was signed on April 10, 1763, and was followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg between the Empress of Austria, the Elector of Bavaria, and the King of Prussia. So ended the Seven Years' War, and so began a new era in the history of the civilized world. The foundations of the huge amorphic Colonial Empire of England were laid, soon to be carried up by Captain Cook and his successors in exploration; the root of a united Germany was planted in Prussia; the toxicall weed of Spanish influence was blighted. Vainglorious France, after venting her spite against England by assisting to deprive her of her original American colonies, finding herself powerless against foreign foes, was to turn her knife against her own throat, and to be beholden to the Corsican butcher, for a tardy recovery of impaired health. Portugal and the Netherlands were the nonentities they still are. England held the seas all over the world, and was the chief power in it. The folly, injustice, and greed of George III. and Lord North were soon to alienate the affections of her American children, and just twenty years after the Treaty of Paris, 1763, the independence of the United States of America was admitted by England.

At this day England still holds larger and more widely scattered possessions, and rules over a greater number of people, than any other power. Whether she will be able to continue to hold what she has acquired, without some well formed scheme of Federation, is a question which is now exercising the minds of many thoughtful men. Federation or disintegration? union or destruction? These are the questions of the hour.

CHAPTER XI.

TABULA CORNEA.

THE country included in the Horn Map itself, is, roughly speaking, in the shape of a right-angled triangle, its eastern side running nearly north and south, from above Fort Chamblly to Albany, (this side being produced in the same southerly direction, beyond the south eastern angle, down the Hudson to New York); its southern side, starting from Albany, runs east and west, south of the Mohawk and Lake Oneida to the western angle of Lake Ontario; its third side runs from that point in a north-easterly direction north of Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence to a point on that river a little below Montreal.

It will be convenient to consider the Horn Map in four sections, viz:—

- I.—Early cartography of the field of the Map.
- II.—The route from New York to Chamblly, by the Hudson and Lake Champlain.
- III.—The route from Albany, up the Mohawk, by Lake Oneida and Oswego to Niagara.
- IV.—The route from Montreal up the St. Lawrence to Oswego.

TABULA CORNEA. SECTION I.

EARLY CARTOGRAPHY OF AMERICA, AND ESPECIALLY OF
THE MODERN STATE OF NEW YORK.

THE earlier maps and globes on which America is indicated show little else than the coast and the islands around it. Some of them are very fragmentary; others, purporting to be more complete, are largely the results

NOTE.—The frequent application of the same names to different rivers lakes and places, and the changes and multiplications of names applied to the same places, are very troublesome, and are calculated to give rise to as much confusion and difficulty as similar malpractices with regard to Zoological and Botanical nomenclature have done.

of speculations and preconceived notions which have turned out to be false. The originals are mostly preserved in public archives and are scattered in various places in Europe and America, but copies or facsimiles of some are easily accessible, and a list of the principal of these is given below in Note G.

The map which is believed to be the first showing the interior parts of the present State of New York, is one attached to a Dutch Memorial presented to the States General of the Netherlands on the 18th May, 1616.* It is wildly incorrect, but shows Manhattan Island as "Manhates," the Hudson, as "Riviere Vanden Vorst Mauritius," the Fort on Castle Island, as "Fort Van Nassauen," the Upper St. Lawrence, as "De Groote Riviere Van Nieu Neederlandt," the same river below Quebec (past Orleans Island and the River Saguenay to Tadoussac, all of which are marked), as "De Groote Revier Van Canada"; Lakes George and Champlain, shown as one lake, are called "Het Meer Vand Irocoisen," and the Connecticut River is named "Viresche Rivier" or "Rivier Van Siccahanis." The scale is given in Dutch miles, about ten to the inch, and the points of the compass, and the degrees of latitude, from 37° to 50° N. are marked, but not the degrees of longitude.

On the map of America in Speed's "History of the World," and Atlas, 1626, the St. Lawrence is roughly and incorrectly shown, and, passing "Tadoussa," "France Roy" and "Trois Riviere" (*sic*), ends abruptly in a slight expansion of its breadth, called the "Lake of Angolesme," presumably Lake Ontario. The Hudson River is shown correctly as to direction.

Asher in his "List of the Maps and Charts of the New Netherlands," mentions twenty-four early maps, the principal of which are De Laet's, 1630, Janson's, 1638, Visscher's, 1650-6, Montanus', Allard's, with some ten others, all from one original, and those of Hondius and Homan.

Visscher's "Novi Belgii Novæque Angliæ nec non partis Virginiae Tabula," 1650-56 (which has a scale of 7½ German miles to the inch), is more correct and contains far more detail than the map of 1616, but still has glaring errors. The St. Lawrence and the parts dominated by the French seem to have been then scarcely better known to the Dutch cartographers than they had been forty years before. The St. Lawrence is called "Rio

* A facsimile of this map, which purports to show the explorations of Cornelis Hendricxsen, and the original of which is in the Royal Archives at the Hague, is given in the first volume of O'Callaghan's History of New Netherland.

St. Laurens" or "De Groote Rivier Van Nieu Nederlandt," and, lower down, "Rio St. Laurentius." The name "La Grande Riviere de Canada" is applied to the Ottawa. The "Ile de Orleans," "Quebec," "Lac St. Pierre," are named, as is "Mont Royal," but no place is there marked, Montreal being then indeed but from eight to fourteen years old. Lake Ontario is not shown, unless a small anonymous lake, much out of its proper position, may be intended to represent that noble inland sea. The River Richelieu is called "Rio Irocoisiensi," and Lake Champlain and Lake George combined "Lacus Irocoisiensis," or "Meer de Irocoisen," and both are placed to the east of the Connecticut River, which is called "Versche Rivier." The Hudson River has five alternative names, viz.: Groote Rivier, Manhattans R., Noort Rivier, Montaigne R., and Maurits R. The Mohawk is called "Maquaas Kill." The Delaware, "Zuydt Rivier of Delaware," is made to connect with the Aesopus River, and so with the Hudson, a less gross error than may at first appear, when we notice how closely the head waters of the two rivers actually approach each other. "Nieuw Amsterdam" appears on "Manhattan's" Island. The colony of Rensselaerswyck, with "Fort Orangie" is mapped in considerable detail; a facsimile of a map of this colony dated in 1630, which might have supplied the materials, is given in O'Callaghan's "Hist. of N. N.". Senechtade (Schenectady) is also marked. The map has an inset view of "Nieuw Amsterdam," in which the most prominent objects are the gallows, the great church, the Dutch flag and the windmill. This is said to be, with one exception, the earliest known view of New York, the earlier one being that appearing in Vander Donk's "Description of Virginia, 1651." The map, after the manner of the period, is ornamented with pictures, illustrating the modes of fortification among the Mohicans and Minnesincks, the "Navis ex arboris trunco igne excavata," the "Canoo, sive Naviculae e corticibus arborum" and the more remarkable Fauna, as bears, beavers, otters, deer and turkeys.

The map "Novi Belgii quod nunc Novi Jorek vocatur," &c. in Montanus' "De Nieuwe en Onbekende Weerelde," 1671, is practically a reduction of this map of Visscher's, or of its original, but the general map of the whole of America in the same book is improved, showing Lake Ontario as "L. Contenant," Lake Oneida, (unnamed) and indicating the existence of Lake Erie. The same edition of Montanus also contains a view of New Amsterdam, the third known.

Blaeu's atlases containing maps of America were published in Antwerp, about 1677.

The French geographer Guillaume De L'Isle published various maps from 1700 onward, the principal being that of North America of 1722. His maps were freely copied, both by English and French cartographers for many years after.

Herman Moll's map, 1715, though full of imperfections and inaccuracies, marks a great advance upon Visscher's. It shows the French settlements, then rapidly increasing, on both sides of the St. Lawrence, from the River Charles to the Chaudière, and on the north bank from "Trois Rivers" (sic) to the "Lake of St. Peters;" "Monreal," "la Galetta," "Fort Frontenac," "Frontignac Lake" (L. Ontario), Niagara and the great Fall.* The Hudson is strangely misdrawn, and the Mohawk is not shown at all.

There is a notable "Map of the British Empire in America, with the French and Spanish Settlements adjacent thereto," by Henry Popple, 1733. It is on a large scale, in 20 sheets. M. Bellin, in an introductory chapter on his own maps, prefixed to the 3rd vol. of Charlevoix, 1744, says of this map, "Comme cette Carte est à plus grand point et plus détaillée, "qu'aucune autre; beaucoup des personnes l'ont regardée comme un bon "Ouvrage, auquel on pourroit avoir quelque confiance; mais il s'en faut "bien, que cela soit ainsi, et je la prouverai dans la suite."

It was this M. N. Bellin, marine engineer and hydrographer, who prepared the numerous maps for Charlevoix's History of New France, 1744, in which work they will be found. They are in considerable detail. He published a new set in 1745, the first set being considered by the French King too favourable to the British claims. When Shirley, at the Boundary Conference at Paris in 1750, taxed Bellin with the alterations, the latter did not

* There is an inset view of "The Cataract of Niagara, some make this waterfall to be half a league, others reckon it not more than a hundred fathoms." This is combined with "A view of y^e Industry of y^e Beavers of Canada in making Dams, &c," which is very droll; the beavers, which must have been of a kind certainly now extinct, mostly walk erect on their hind legs, some of them using their circular tails like hods to carry huge cakes of clay, others bearing timber on their shoulders as men might do. The artist had however, no intention of being comic.

The map also contains a note as to the Postal arrangements of the day, "The Western Post sets out from Philadelphia every Fryday, leaving letters at Burlington and Perth Amboy, and arrives at New York on Sun-day night; y^e distance between Philadelphia and New York being 106 miles. The post goes out eastward every Monday morning from New York, and arrives at Seabrook, Thursday noon, being 150 miles, where the post from Boston sets out at the same time; the New York Post returning with the eastern letters, and y^e Boston Post with the western, &c."

attempt to defend them, but only said, smiling, "We in France must follow the commands of the Monarch." Bellin devotes the chapter above quoted principally to the glorification of his own maps, and the depreciation of Popple's; he treats more gently the errors in De L'isle's map of 1722, and acknowledges his obligations to the English survey of Hudson's Bay made by Middleton in 1741; and, referring to the information derived from Charlevoix, says that that Reverend Father travelled "partout la boussole à la main."

In 1755, one Lewis Evans, a veritable Chevey Slyme, published a pamphlet and a map, which were fiercely attacked in the public press as unduly favouring the French pretensions. The attack produced a second pamphlet, in a great measure directed against Shirley, and a second map, in 1756. These incidents are only mentioned as instances of the jealousy with which the publication of maps was watched at the time, and the political uses attempted to be made of them. The map was republished several times, and last in 1776, with considerable additions by Governor Pownall. This edition was accompanied by an important topographical description of the parts included in the map, by Pownall.*

"The extent of British claims is best shown on two maps of the time, Mitchell's '*Map of the British and French Dominions in North America*,' and Huske's '*New and accurate Map of North America*,'" writes Parkman.

Dr. John Mitchell's map is dated in 1755. It is larger and more in detail than Moll's map, and contains a note throwing scorn on the latter, and attributing to it the serious errors in "*our many new maps, copied from a new map of Nova Scotia, copied from Popple and D'Anville*." Mitchell acknowledges his obligations to Chabert† and Bellin, and winds up thus:— "*In short we do not find a single spot hardly justly laid down in these our new maps of Nova Scotia, although they were rightly laid down for nearly by De L'Isle and others. We are so far from improving them in the*

* Evans published his first map in 1749. The map of 1755, bore a fulsome dedication to Thomas Pownall, for which, his enemies said, he paid handsomely. Pownall was at this time a pushing young man of some ability, and great ambition. Shirley was the first to give him a helping hand, which kindness was requited by the most bitter enmity on Pownall's part as soon as he was able to stand alone. Evans was his tool and toady, and, in his second pamphlet, attacked Shirley in a scurrilous way. By the judicious and unscrupulous appropriation of other men's labours, and his own application, Pownall achieved success, attaining to the Governorships of Mass. and New Jersey. The map and topographical account published in 1776, are most valuable.

† Chabert's surveys used by Mitchell, were made in 1750.

"Geography of America that we see it made worse and worse, &c." In a note to Smith's "History of New York," 2nd Ed., is the following:— "Among the English (maps) Dr. Mitchell's is the only authentic one extant. "None of the rest, concerning America, have passed under the examination, "or received the sanction of any public board; and for this reason ought "not to be construed to our prejudice. Add, that they generally copy from "the French." Many of the places on the Horn Map, are shown on Mitchell's map. Fort Edward appears as "Fort Lyman," the River Oswegatchie is called also "Chouagatchi." That part of the St. Lawrence between Montreal and Lake Ontario or Cataraqui, is called the "River of the Iroquois or Catarakui," a name then recently altered in French maps of the time, for political reasons, to River St. Lawrence. Lake Erie has the alternative name of "Lake Okswego"; the French Forts at Presqu'isle, Le Bœuf, Venango, Duquesne and Sandusky are shown and described as "the Forts lately usurped by the French."* The scale is rather less than 30 miles to the inch.

The claims of England westward as far as the Pacific are, as in most English maps of the period, asserted in this. John Huske† in his pamphlet entitled: "The present state of North America," 2nd Ed., 1755, after referring to the French geographers, writes:—"However, to point out the Mistakes, or "rather designed Encroachments, of the Maps of *America* published in *France*, of late years, by Authority, would be almost to copy the whole of "them. Therefore it must give every *Briton* great pleasure to see our "countryman, Dr. Mitchel, F.R.S., detecting their Mistakes and designed "Encroachments, and almost wholly restoring us to our just Rights and Possessions, as far as paper will admit of it, in his most elaborate and "excellent map of *North America* just published, which deserves the "warmest thanks and countenance from every good subject in His Majesty's "Dominions."

Huske's map, which appears in Douglass's Summary of North America, 2nd Edit., 1760, has a scale of 135 miles to the inch, and is dated 1755. It is entitled "A new and accurate Map of North America (wherin the errors

* After "C. or Pt. Rich." on the coast of Newfoundland is the following quaint addition, "which is left out of all the late French Maps as if there was no such place, seemingly because it is the Bounds of their Privilege of Fishing which extends from hence Nth. round to C. Bonavista." This is in allusion to clause XIII. of the Treaty of Utrecht.

† This pamphlet is attributed by Drake to Ellis Huske, the father of John Huske. I have followed Sabin.

"of all preceding British, French and Dutch Maps, respecting the rights of "Great Britain, France and Spain, and the Limits of each of His Majesty's "Provinces, are corrected," and it is inscribed to the Hon. Charles Towns-
hend. It includes within the province of New York, the five great lakes and
all the country west of them between the parallels 40° and 49° N. lat. The
British Provinces are distinguished by colors, and certain uncolored spaces
within their boundaries denote the French encroachments. The larger terri-
tories claimed by the French are included between red lines. A note states
that "*the Limits of the Massachusetts Province with* New York, Connecticut
with New York, New York *with* New Jersey, and Pennsylvania *with*
Maryland are not yet finally determined owing to some ambiguity in the
description of the territory of y^e several grants, and to the tedious and
expensive progress such disputes are always attended with." The first
edition of "Douglass's Summary," published in 1755, was furnished with a
map by D'Anville. Huske, in his pamphlet quoted above, speaking of the
assistance rendered to the support of the French claims by erroneous books
written and maps drawn by British subjects, says of Douglass, "and with
respect to limits between us and the *French* in general, and of *Nova Scotia*
in particular, he is very erroneous." The criticism appears to have been
so far effective that Douglass employed the critic himself to prepare the map
for the second edition.

The important map of "Canada Louisiane et Terres Angloises" by
Le Sieur D'Anville is also dated in 1755. It is upon this survey that many
of the subsequent English maps are avowedly founded. The scale is about
45 miles to an inch. It gives to Albany the alternative name of "Orange,"
and the memoir which accompanies the map explains that "Ce lieu
d'Albani conserve parmi nous le nom d'Orange, que lui avoient donné les
Hollandois, dans le tems qu'ils occupoient ce pays sous le nom de Nieuw-
Nederland, ou de Nouveau Pays Bas, &c." Wood Creek (Champlain) is
called "R. d'Orange." The St. Lawrence between Ontario and Montreal is
called "Fl. S. Laurent." The political significance attached to the names
used is shown by the following extract from Shirley's address to the Grand
Council of War convened at New York for settling the operations for 1756,
"that the Lake Ontario was only accessible to the Canadians, thro' the river
"Cadaracqui, formerly called by the French Fleuve Iroquois; but in their
"late maps, calculated to countenance their exorbitant claims, distinguished

"by the name of St. Lawrence." Lake Oneida is called "Lac Techeroguen," and the river flowing from it to Oswego is "Choueghen R." The Genessee is the "Casconchiagon R." The French forts south of Lake Erie appear. There is a large scale inset map of the St. Lawrence, a reduction of which will be found on Plate X.

The "Carte des Possessions Angloises et Françoises du Continent de L'Amerique Septentrionale," 1755, from "L'Atlas Methodique," on a scale of about 100 miles to the inch, shows very clearly, by colors, the English and French colonies and the territories in dispute between them. According to this map, the French claimed everything south of the St. Lawrence, which lay north and west of an irregular line, starting from the eastern shore of Lake Ontario, a few miles north of Oswego, and running eastward south of Lake George nearly as far as the Connecticut River, then running north-east to about $45^{\circ} 30'$ N. Lat., then east again to Bay Verte in Nova Scotia.

An English map published in 1755, entitled "A new and accurate Map of the English Empire in North America representing their rightful claim as confirmed by charters, and the formal surrender of their Indian friends. Likewise the encroachments of the French and the several Forts they have unjustly erected therein, By a Society of Anti-Gallicans," my copy of which is printed on silk, is identical as to scale and outline with the last, and only differs from it in its colouring, and language, and, slightly, as to its western extent.

According to "A Map of the British and French settlements in North America," undated, but obviously of this period, the English regarded as French encroachments their possession of anything south of the St. Lawrence and Ottawa, and East of Lake Michigan, the Illinois River and the Mississippi.

On Governor Pownall's map of the province of New York, 1776, in Jeffery's American Atlas, the triangular tract between the Mohawk, Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence, and the Upper Hudson and Lake Champlain and the Richelieu is thus described.

"Coughsaghrage or the Beaver Hunting Country of the Confederate Indians. The Confederates called by the French Iroquois, surrendered this country to the English at Albany, the 19th July, 1701; and the cession was confirmed the 14th of September, 1724. It belongs to New York, and is full of Swamps, Lakes, Rivers, and Drowned Lands; a long chain of snowy mountains, which are seen from Lake Champlain, runs

“thro’ the whole tract from north to south. This country is not only uninhabited, but even unknown, except towards the south where several grants have been made since the peace.”

On the same map “Rynards,” on the Mohawk, eight miles west of Herkimer, is marked “The uppermost settlement in 1755.” A reduction of a portion of this map is given on Plate VIII.

TABULA CORNEA. SECTION II.

NEW YORK TO CHAMBLY. (PLATES V., VI. & VII.)

New York (Plate V.) is built on Manhattan Island*, which is about fourteen miles long by two broad. As to the derivation of the name “Manhattan” there has been much dispute. Schoolcraft and others derive it from the Indian expression Mon-a-ton which is supposed to refer to the whirlpool of Hellgate. Weise thinks it a corruption of the French “Manant” = “such a one as dwells where he was borne” (Cotgrave, 1650). There are about fifty ways of spelling the word.

The Dutch were the first to trade to Manhattan in 1610. In 1613 they had built a few huts there. In November of the same year, Captain Argal of Virginia, returning from his descent on St. Sauveur, Maine, visited Manhattan, and forced Corstiaensen, the Dutch Superintendent, to acknowledge the King of England and the Governor of Virginia as his deputy, and to agree to pay tribute. Whether only “post hoc,” or also “propter hoc,” on the 27th March, 1614, “the Assembly of the High and Mighty Lords States General of the United Netherlands” issued an Edict, giving to those who might discover new lands, the exclusive privilege of making six voyages thither. Encouraged by this, some merchants of Amsterdam fitted out five ships, commanded by skippers Jande Witt, Thuys V. ... ten, Adriaen Block, Hendrick Corstiaensen, and Cornelis Jacobsen Mey, to explore the “Great River of the Manhattans.” The three latter are the more notable of the five skippers named. The result of the expedition was the formation of

* A distinction is made by the modern Manhattanese between “Manhattan Island” and “the Island of Manhattan.” The former term applies only to a small district near Corlaer’s Hook; the latter to the whole Island.

"the United New Netherlands Company." The Fort on Manhattan and a stockaded trading house at the head of the navigation of the Hudson, on an island just below the site of Modern Albany, were erected by the Company. This Company's privilege expired on the 1st June, 1618, and they tried in vain to get it renewed. In 1616 Captain Cornelis Hendricksen, employed by the Company, delivered to the Company and to the States General a report, which was accompanied by the map of which a facsimile is given by O'Callaghan, as stated elsewhere. In 1618 Hendrick Eelkins, Adriaen Jans Engel and other members of the N.N. Company obtained permission to make a voyage.

About this time the English nonconformists, driven by persecution to take refuge in Holland, but not contented with the soil or climate, cast their eyes towards America, and intimated to the Company the desire of some of them to go there. The Company put the proposition before the States General, pointing out its advantages, in the way of spreading the true and pure Christian religion and of forestalling the English occupation of the country, and the great importance of the territory, on account of the quantity of timber there for shipbuilding and other purposes, "when the West India Company to be formed." The States General refused to entertain the petition.

The first enduring Charter was that granted to the Dutch West India Company 3rd June, 1621. In 1624 Peter Minuits was appointed Director of the New Netherlands. In 1625 the Company bought the Island of Manhattan from the "wild men" for sixty guilders (about £5), and on the 6th June in that year the first child of European parentage, Sarah de Rappelje, was born in the Colony.

In 1633, Peter Minuits was succeeded by Wouter Van Twiller, with the title of Director General; William Kieft followed in 1637, and, in 1647, the last and best of the Dutch Governors, the sturdy Peter Stuyvesant, took the post and held it till the arrival of the English in 1664.

The Dutch carried on a lucrative trade, principally in furs and tobacco, and, greatly appreciating the Indian art of smoking, consoled themselves for their expatriation by its constant use. Few incidents of note occurred to disturb the quietude of their existence. One of these was a brutal and treacherous massacre of Algonquin Indians by order of Governor Kieft, a wanton crime which utterly discredited him in the eyes of his people;

another was the surprise and capture of the Dutch Fort Casimir on the Delaware (South River), by the Governor of the Swedish Fort Christina, a few miles above it on the same river, in 1734. In the following year Stuyvesant re-captured Fort Casimir, reduced Fort Christina and annexed New Sweden to the Dutch Colony.

The Dutch had gone to North America, in disregard of the protest of the English King, and while they were phlegmatically smoking their pipes and minding their own business in contented security, the restless New Englanders were pushing forward their frontiers and encroaching on the lands which the Dutchmen claimed as their own. When the danger became too apparent to be any longer ignored, Stuyvesant endeavoured by remonstrance to induce the English to retire, or at all events to come no further, but without avail.

As we have seen, the English had never abandoned their claim to the territory. James I. had included it in his grant to the London Company in 1606, called it New Albion, and actually appointed Edward Langford Governor, but the Dutch settlement, nevertheless, was made by his tacit permission. Troubles in England caused the Dutch to be left practically undisturbed until after the Restoration, when, in 1664, Charles II. made a grant of a large tract of North America, including the New Netherlands, to his brother, the Duke of York and Albany, and gave effect to it by sending Sir Robert Carr and Colonel Richard Nicolls to take possession. When the English fleet lay off the town, Stuyvesant gallantly used every endeavour to rouse his countrymen to fight in defence of their own. But the Dutchmen would not be roused, and in spite of their Governor, surrendered New Amsterdam on the 27th August, 1664, and it became New York. Most of the Dutch Burghers stayed quietly on and accepted the change of masters with philosophy. The brave Stuyvesant retired into the country, and sulked with dignity for the remainder of his days.

After the capture of New York by the Dutch in 1673, during the Governorship of Lovelace, and its restoration to England in 1674, Charles made a new grant to the Duke of York by letters patent, dated 1674. The town was incorporated under Col. Dongan's Governorship in 1686. A second and more ample charter under Lord Cornbury's Governorship was granted in 1708, and a third and final one, under Governor Montgomery in 1730.

Before the Revolution the Commander-in-chief had been only Lieutenant-

Governor, the Duke of York being the principal Governor by patent; but after the abdication of James II., the property and government reverted to the Crown, which was directly represented by the Governor, whose title became "Captain-General and Governor-in-chief in and over the province "or Colony of New York and territories thereon depending, and Vice-Admiral of the same."

Denton, writing in 1670, says: "That tract of land formerly called *The New Netherlands*, doth contain all that land which lieth in the North parts "of America, betwixt New-England and Mary-land in Virginia, the length "of which Northward into the Countrey, as it hath not been fully discovered, "so it is not certainly known. The bredth of it is about two hundred miles." "New York," he adds "is built most of Brick and Stone and covered with "red and black Tile, and the Land being high, it gives at the distance a "pleasing Aspect to the Spectators."

The Rev. John Miller, describing the town (as distinguished from the province) of New York, in 1695, says the part within the fortifications "is "not in length or breadth above two furlongs, and in circumference a mile.* "The form of it is triangular, having for the sides thereof the west and north "lines, and east and south for its arched basis. The chief place of strength "it boasts is its fort situated on the south-west angle, which is reasonably "strong and well provided with ammunition, having in it about 38 guns. "Mounted on the basis likewise, in convenient places, are three batteries of "great guns, one of 15 called Whitehall Battery, one of 5 by the Stadthouse, "and the third of 10 by the Burgher's Path. On the north-east angle is a "strong blockhouse and half moon, wherein are six or seven guns; this part "butts on the river, and is all along fortified with a sufficient bank of earth. "On the north side are two large stone points, and therein about 8 guns, "some mounted and some unmounted. On the northwest angle is a block- "house, and on the west side two hornworks which are furnished with some "guns 6 or 7 in number. This side butts upon Hudson's River, has a bank "in some places 20 fathoms high from the water, by reason whereof, and a

* The charter limits of the city now include, besides Manhattan, Governor's, Bedloe's, and Ellis Islands in New York Bay, Blackwells, Ward's and Randall's Islands in the East River, and a considerable district on the mainland, an aggregate area of about 26,500 acres, of which about 14,000 are on Manhattan and 12,000 on the mainland. The county of N.Y. is co-extensive with the city. Bedloe's Island, on which formerly stood Fort Wood, is now occupied by Bartholdi's colossal statue of Liberty."

"stockado strengthened with a bank of earth on the inside, which also is on
"the north side to the landward, it is not easily assailable."

Speaking of the province the same writer says: "The number of in-
"habitants in this province are about 3,000 families whereof almost one-half
"are naturally Dutch, a great part English and the rest French." Of these
about 850 were in New York, 300 in Kingston and Ulster county, of which
Kingston was the chief town, and 400 to 500 in Albany.

Miller gives a plan of New York* showing the chapel in the fort, the
Dutch Calvinist, Dutch Lutheran, and French Churches, the Jews Synagogue,
and "the ground proper for building an English Church," on which
Trinity Church was built in 1695 or 1696. The plan also shows the
governor's house in the fort (shown on the Horn Map), and a windmill
outside the town in a position corresponding to that of the one shown on the
Horn Map. "Merchandizing in this country is a good employment, English
"goods yielding in New York generally 100 per cent. advance above the first
"cost, and some of them 200, 300, yea, sometimes, 400; this makes many
"in the city to follow it, &c." He draws a not very flattering picture of the
inhabitants in respect of their wickedness and irreligion, "which abounds
"in all parts of the province, and appears in so many shapes, constituting so
"many sorts of sin, that I can scarce tell which to begin withal." Great
negligence of divine things, drunkenness, cursing and swearing and immorality,
he expatiates upon lovingly, as becomes a divine.

Some sixty years later, between 1748 and 1750, the Swedish naturalist
Kalm visited New York. "In size," he says, "it comes nearest to Boston
"and Philadelphia. But with regard to its fine buildings, its opulence and
"extensive commerce, it disputes the preference with them. Most of the
"houses are built of bricks; and are generally strong and neat, and several
"stories high. Some had according to old architecture, turned the gables
"towards the streets; but the new houses were altered in this respect.
"The streets do not run so straight as those of Philadelphia, and have some-
"times considerable bendings; however they are very spacious and well
"built; most of them are paved except in high places, where it has been
"found useless." The churches deserving of attention were, "1. *The*
"English Church built in the year 1695, at the west end of the town, consists

* A reduction of this plan, without the table of reference, is given in the Encycl. Brit., 9th ed., under
"New York." Lyne's plan, 1728, is also given.

Portion of inset Chart in Governor Pownall's Map of the Provinces of New York and New Jersey, 1776

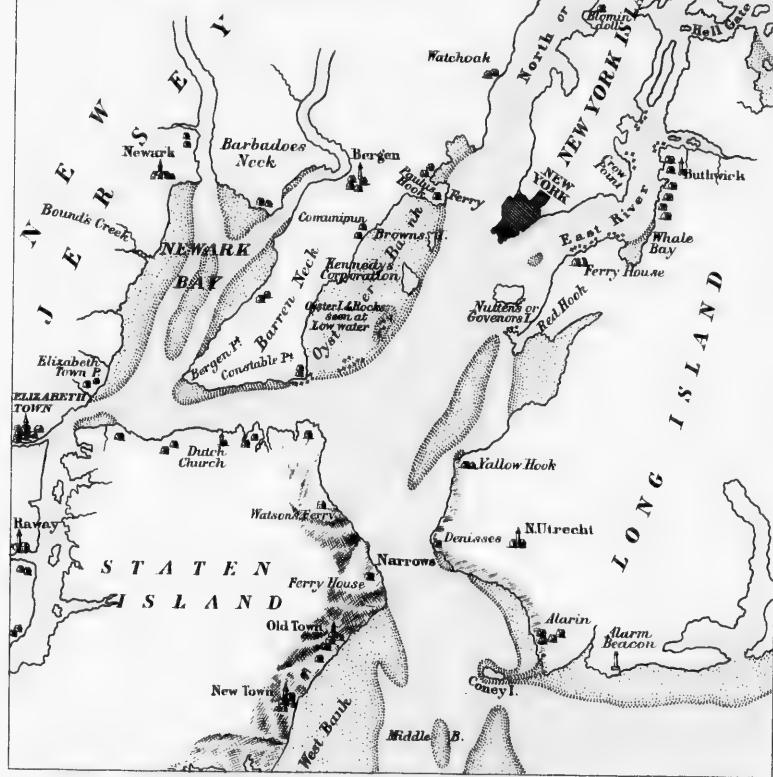
Appendicula Historicae, Plate V

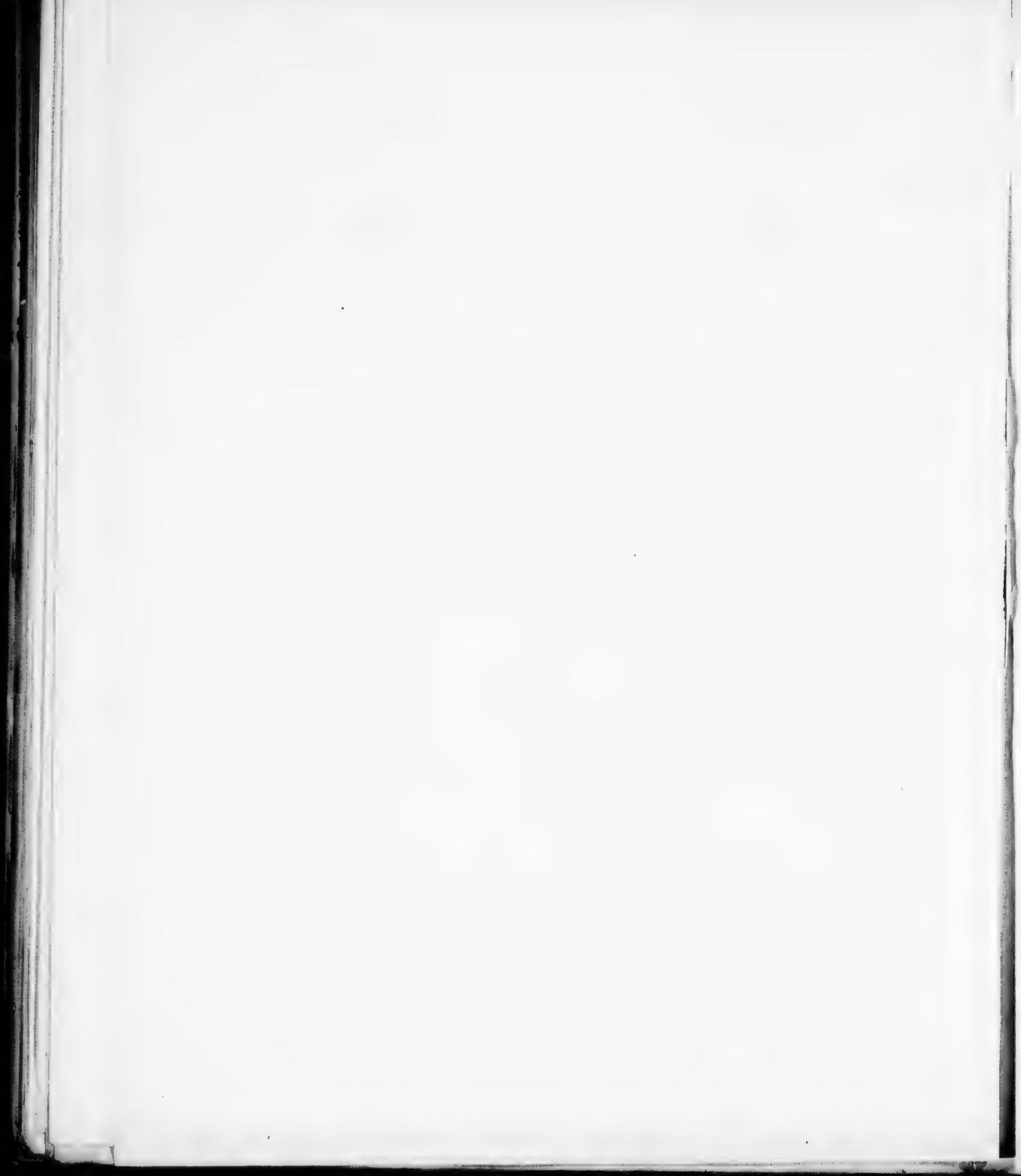
A CHART
OF THE
MOUTH OF HUDSON'S RIVER,
from Sandy Hook to New York

$$T_0 = 2 - \frac{1}{\alpha}$$

Two Sea Leagues

Drawn by Major Holland, Surveyor General, of the Northern district in America. Corrected & improved, from the original materials, by Govr. Pownall Member of Parliament 1776.





"of stone, and has a steeple with a bell." (This was Trinity church, that for which the site shown on Miller's plan was reserved). "2. *The new Dutch Church* which is likewise built of stone, is pretty large, and is provided with "a steeple; it also has a clock which is the only one in the town, &c. 3. *The Old Dutch Church* which is also built of stone, &c. 4. *The Presbyterian Church* which is pretty large and was built lately. It is of stone and has a "steeple and a bell in it. 5. *The German Lutheran Church*. 6. *The German Reformed Church*. 7. *The French Church* for Protestant refugees. 8. *The Quakers' Meeting House*. 9. *The Jewish Synagogue*."* There were two printers in the town, and every week some English gazettes were published, which contained news from all parts of the world. There was no good water to be met with in the town itself, but at a little distance there was a large spring of good water, which the inhabitants took for their tea and for the uses of the kitchen. This want of good water lay heavy upon the horses of the strangers that came to this place; for they did not like to drink the water from the wells in the town.† Most of the wine drunk there and in the other colonies was brought from Madeira, and was very strong and fiery. No manufactures had yet been established. The port was a good one; ships of the greatest burden could lie in it, quite close up to the bridge. The principal exports were, all the various kinds of skins, sugar, logwood and other dyeing woods, rum, mahogany, and many other goods which were the produce of the West Indies. Kalm also notes the innumerable quantities of excellent oysters, and says there are few places which have oysters of such an exquisite taste, and of so great a size; he gives a receipt for pickling them, which was largely used in order to export them to the West Indies, where they were sold at from 500 to 600 per cent. profit. The oysters were best in those months which have an R in their name, "however, there are

* In 1757 New York contained about 2,800 houses, and 12 places of worship, and a population of about 15,000. The rector of Trinity Church had a stipend of £100. The rector, churchwardens and vestrymen were incorporated, and were subject to the Bishop of London. The revenue of the church was restricted to £500 per annum, "but it is possessed of a real estate at the north end of the town, which, having been lately divided into lots, and let to farm, will in a few years produce a far greater income." (Smith's Hist. of N.Y.) It is now the wealthiest single organization in the United States. (Lippincott.) A hundred and thirty years later New York had a million and a half inhabitants, and nearly 500 places of worship.

† Since 1842, New York has derived a good water supply from the Croton River, which flows through Westchester co., and enters the Hudson, 33 miles above New York. The water is brought 40 miles by an aqueduct of solid masonry 8 ft. 6 in. deep, and 7 ft. 6 in. wide, with a capacity of 106,000,000 gallons daily. It crosses Harlem River on the High Bridge, a granite structure 1,450 feet long, 21 feet wide and 114 feet high.

"poor people, who live all the year round upon nothing but oysters and "bread." Smith in his "History of New York," says: "Our oysters are a "considerable article in the support of the poor. Their beds are within "view of the town; a fleet of 200 small craft are often seen there at a time "when the weather is mild in winter; and this single article is computed to "be worth annually £10,000 to £12,000."

The Hudson (shewn, but not named, on the Horn Map). "Hudson's "River runs by New York Northward into the countrey, towards the head "of which is seated New Albany, a place of good trade with the Indians, "betwixt which and New York, being above one hundred miles,* is as good "cornland as the world affords," says Denton.

The Hudson is rich, too rich, in names. Henry Hudson did not, after the fashion of so many discoverers,† name the river after himself, but simply called it "The Great River of the Mountains" or "The Great River," the Indian names were, Shatemue (Mohican), Mohican (Mineees) and Cahotatea and Santaty (Iroquois). In Hendricksen's map (1616) it is called "Riviere vanden Vorst Mauritius"; on Vischer's map (1656-60) it is called "Groot Rivier," "Manhattans R.," "Noort Rivier" ‡ (the Delaware was the "Zuydt Rivier,") "Montaigne River," and "Maurits River;" the name "Hudson" was given to it by the English after the annexation of the New Netherlands in 1664.

Colden, writing to Governor Burnet on the subject of the fur trade and comparing the principal trade routes to Lake Ontario, thus describes the route by the Hudson and Lake Champlain to Montreal.

"Goods are easily carried from *New York* to *Albany*, up *Hudson's River*, the distance being only 140 miles, the River very strait all the way, "and bold, and very free from Sandbanks, as well as Rocks; so that the "vessels always sail by Night as by Day, and have the advantage of the Tide "upwards as well as downwards, the Flood flowing above Albany. * * * "The distance between *Albany* and *Montreal* is about two hundred miles, all "by Water, except twelve miles between *Hudson's River* and the *Wood*

* The actual distance is 145 miles.

† Verrazano visited the Bay of New York in 1524, entered the Hudson and called it "La Grande Riviere," but his discovery was practically fruitless, while that of Hudson had an immediate and permanent effect.

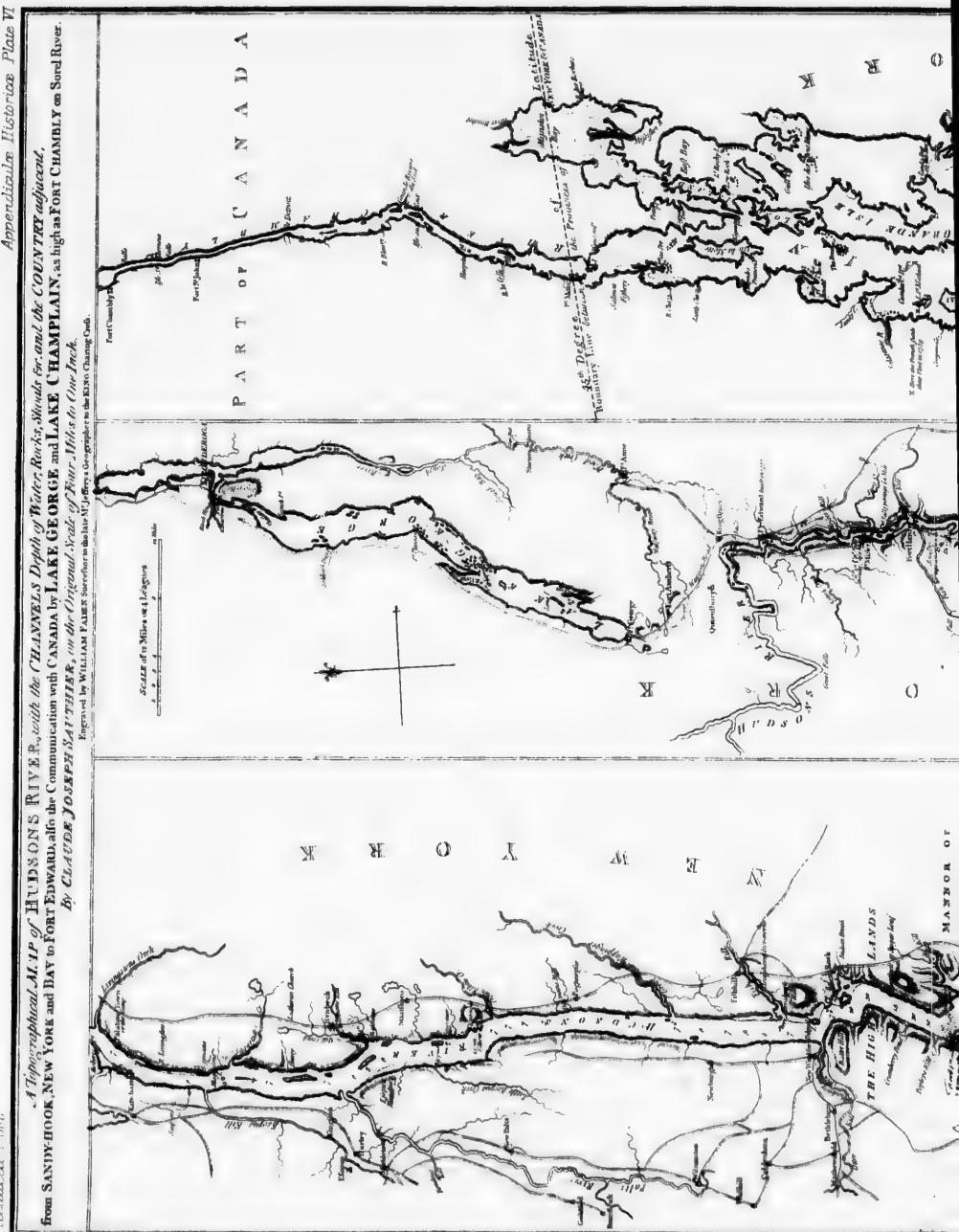
‡ Captain Anburey, writing in 1777, and Weld, in 1797, both Englishmen, still call the Hudson below Albany "The North River," and apply the name "Hudson" only to the upper reaches of the stream.

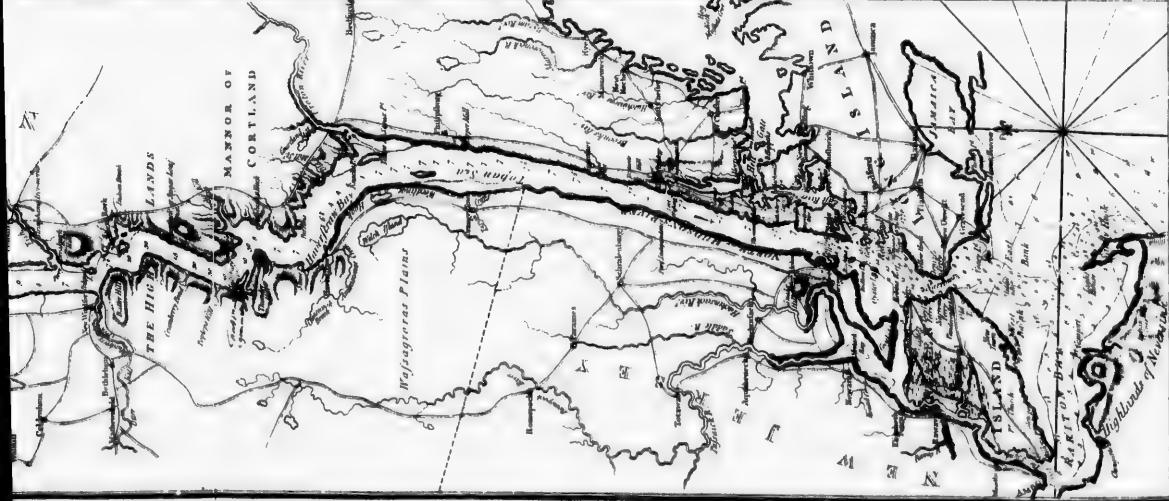
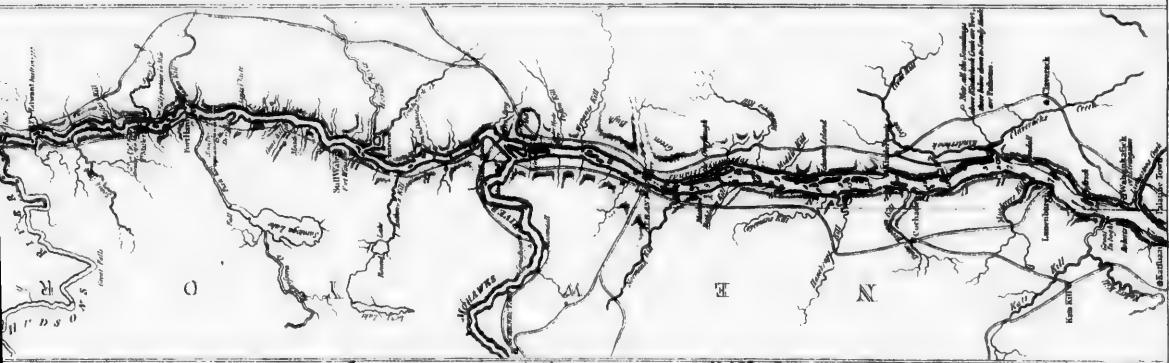
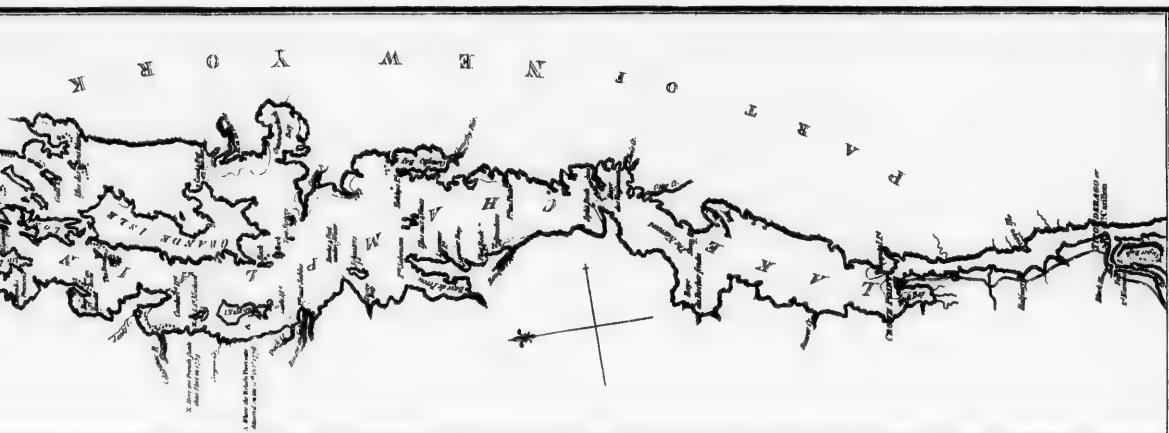


Appendicular Historiae Plate VI

"A Topographical Map of HUDDSON'S RIVER, with the CHANNELS Depth of Water, Rocks, Shores, &c. and the COUNTRY adjacent,
from SANDY-HOOK, New-York and BAY to FORT EDWARD, also the Communication with CANADA by LAKE GEORGE and LAKE CHAMPLAIN, as high as FORT CHAMBLY on Sorel River.
By CLAUDE JOSEPH VITELIER, in the Original Work of FORT HENRY to One Inch.
Revised by WILLIAM PARK. Surveyed in the Year 1770. A Description of the Map is given in the following Chart.

Reduced from





"*Creek*, where they carry their Bark Canoes over Land, and about sixteen miles between *Chamby* and *La Prairie*, over against *Montreal*."

Kalm, while describing his voyage from New York to Albany in 1749, after some speculations as to "the first origin of rivers" adds, speaking of the Hudson "I was surprised on seeing its course and the variety of its shores. It takes its rise a good way above Albany, and descends to New York in a direct line from North to South, which is a distance of about 160 English miles, and perhaps more; for the little bendings which it makes are of no signification. In many places between New York and Albany are ridges of high mountains running west and east. But it is remarkable that they go on undisturbed till they come to the River *Hudson*, which cuts directly across them, and frequently their sides stand perpendicular toward the river. There is an opening left in the chain of mountains, as broad as the river commonly is, for it to pass through, and the mountains go on as before, on the other side in the same direction. It is likewise remarkable that the river in such places where it passes through the mountains is as deep and often deeper than in other places. The perpendicular rocks on the sides of the river are surprising, and it appears that if no passages had been opened by Providence for the river to pass through, the mountains in the upper part of the country would have been inundated, since these mountains like so many dykes, would have hindered the water from going on. *Quere*.—Why does this river go in a direct line for so considerable a distance? Why do the many passages, through which the river flows across the mountains lie under the same meridian? Why are waterfalls near some of these passages, or, at least shallow water with a rocky ground?"*

The tide flows about eight or ten miles above Albany, and, therefore, about 160 miles from the sea. During eight months of the year yachts used to ply between New York and Albany, all of them belonging to the latter place. They brought from Albany boards or planks, flour, pease, or furs, which were bought from the Indians, or smuggled from the French. There was a heavy

* Gordon in his History of New York says, "This river is one of the most interesting watercourses on the face of the globe; and as a navigable outlet to the vast and fertile regions of the west has high claims to attention. * * * It presents the only known instance, except that of the St. Lawrence, in which the ocean tides pass the primitive mountain chain, carrying depth for the largest vessels. This depth is found for 120 miles."—(Note to Denton's New York).

penalty in Canada for carrying furs to the English, as that trade belonged to the French West India Company; but the French merchants carried on a considerable contraband smuggling business through Albany. The sloops came home almost empty, and only brought a few merchandises with them, amongst which rum was the chief. "This last is absolutely necessary to the "inhabitants of *Albany*; they cheat the *Indians* in the fur trade with it; "for when the *Indians* are drunk, they will leave it to the *Albanians* to fix "the price of the furs," writes Kalm, and elsewhere he says that the Indians when in liquor sometimes did not get one-half or even one-tenth of the value of their goods, and that the merchants of Albany gloried in these tricks, the evil effect of which, in alienating the Indians when their alliance was required by the English, has been noticed in the account of the Seven Years' War.

The artist on the Horn Map has neglected this part of the river Hudson, but, in fact there were only a few farms and villages on the banks, and no place of importance, except Kingston (*Æsopus* or *Sopers*), near the mouth of the river *Æsopus*. Kingston is thus described by Dr. Miller (1695): "Kingstone "is the chief town of Ulster County; lies on the west side of Hudson's River, "but two miles distant from it, from New York eighty-six, and from Albany "sixty-four miles; it is quadrangular and stockaded round, having small "hornworks at convenient distances, one from the other, and in proper places. "It is in circumference near as big as Albany, but as to number of houses "not half so big; on the south side is a particular part separated by a "stockade from the rest, and strengthened with a block-house and a horn- "work, wherein are about six guns." Dr. Miller also gives a plan of the town and fortifications.

Albany.—Hudson, in the "Half-moon," explored the Hudson nearly as far as the site of Albany, in 1609.* In 1614 the Dutch Company erected a fort on Castle Island, a little below the present city, but this being destroyed or greatly damaged by a freshet in 1618, they removed further south, and built a fort on a hill, called by the Indians Tawassgunshee, on the banks of Tawalsontha Creek (Norman's Kill). In 1623 Fort Orange was erected on

* Smith, referring to Stith, Douglass, Oldmixon and other English writers, and contradicting Charlevoix, gives the date of Hudson's voyage as 1608. But O'Callaghan, after noticing that Hudson was engaged in 1607 and 1608 in seeking a north-west passage, gives the date of his sailing from the Texel as the 6th April, 1609, and of his anchoring off Sandyhook as 4 Sept., 1609. Montanus also says the voyage was made in 1609.

the left bank of the Hudson, a few miles further north, and close to the site of Albany. In 1630 several tracts of land on both sides of the Hudson, extending from Haver Island, at the mouth of the Mohawk, to below Fort Orange, were bought of the native proprietors for Kiliaen van Rensselaer; the land purchased was twenty-four miles long by forty-eight wide. An association, with Van Rensselaer as patroon, was formed for the administration of Rensselaerswyck.

In 1633, Captain Trevor, in the English ship "William," having on board as supercargo Jacob Jacobs Elkins, who had formerly been for four years in command of the Dutch fort on Castle Island, arrived at New Amsterdam, intending to proceed up the Hudson to trade with the Indians. Van Twiller refused permission. The English Captain, claiming that the country belonged to his King, went without leave. Arrived at Fort Orange, he began to trade, but the Dutch destroyed the English camp, weighed the "William's" anchor, and, with three Dutch ships, escorted her to Manhattan. This was the first English ship which sailed up the Hudson as far as the site of Albany.*

Meanwhile the Dutch Company had quarrelled with its patroons on the subject of the fur trade, and this domestic dissension was increased by an open difference between the Director General and the clergyman at New Amsterdam. Besides these difficulties, there was also trouble with the Indians. The New Netherlands was beginning to get into hot water.

"Thirteen days after the surrender of New Amsterdam, a detachment was sent under Col. Nicholls to reduce Orange Fort, which he easily accomplished, and called it New Albany, from the Duke of York's Scotch "title, and so the whole country fell into the hands of the English." (Oldmixon in Notes to Denton.)

Denton's mention of New Albany has been already quoted. Dr. Miller writes:—"As this city (New York) is the chief place of defence "against those enemies who come by sea, so Albany is of principal con-

* In the same year Jacob Corlaer purchased a tract of land about sixty square miles in extent, on the Connecticut, near Hartford, from the Indians, for "one piece of duffels, twenty-seven ells long, six axes, six kettles, eighteen knives, one swordblade, one shears, and some toys," and erected there a fortified trading post, which he called "The House of Good Hope." This was of course, from the English point of view, an encroachment on British territory. The Governor of Boston notified to Van Twiller that the territory had been granted by the King of Great Britain to sundry of his subjects. Meanwhile, some of the New Plymouth colonists had ascended the Connecticut, passed the Dutch fort, and formed a settlement above it. The Dutch protested, but without avail, and a force sent by them to dislodge the English, being met by a determined front, retired without fighting.

"sideration against those who come by land, the French and Indians of "Canada. It is distant from New York 150 miles, and lies up Hudson's "River on the west side on the descent of a hill from the west to the eastward. "It is in circumference about 6 furlongs, and hath therein about 200 houses, "a fourth part of what there is reckoned to be in New York. The form of it "is septangular, and the longest line that which buts upon the river running "from the north to the south. On the west angle is the fort; quadrangular, "strongly stockadoed and ditched round, having in it 21 pieces of ordnance "mounted. On the north-west side are two block-houses, and on the south-west "as many: on the south-east angle stands one block-house; in the middle "of the line from thence northward is a horned work, and on the north-east "angle a mount. The whole city is well stockadoed round, and in the several "fortifications named are about 30 guns. Dependent on this city, and "about 20 miles to the northward from it, is the Fort of Scanectade, quad- "rangular, with a treble stockado, a new block-house at every angle, and in "each block-house two great guns; and Nestigayuna, and the Half-moon; "places formerly of some account, but now deserted. On this city also "depends the Fort at the Flats, four miles from Albany, belonging to the "River Indians." He gives plans of Albany and of the forts at Scanectade (Schenectady) and the Flats.

Kalm gives a long account of Albany, and amongst other things, mentions that from half a bushel of maize sown there, they reaped 100 bushels; that from one bushel of wheat they got twelve, and, "if the soil be good," twenty bushels;* that the wheat flour from Albany was reckoned the best in all North America, except that from Sopus or King's Town, and that, at New York, Albany flour fetched several shillings per cwt. more than that from other places.

The water was no better than that at New York, and Kalm found

* In a note to O'Callaghan, it appears that, about 1640, wheat was raised off one field in Rensselaerswyck eleven years in succession. The land was ploughed twelve times during that period; twice the first and once every succeeding year, when the stubble was ploughed and the wheat sown and harrowed under. Morse, writing in 1792, says that N.Y. was at least half-a-century behind her neighbours in New Engl., N.J. and Pa., in point of improvement in agriculture and manufactures, and gives as reasons, among others, the want of enterprise of the inhabitants, and the cheapness and abundance of land. "So long," he writes, "as the farmer in N.Y. can have 60 acres of land to raise 1,000 bushels of wheat, he will never trouble himself to find out how he can raise the same quantity upon half the land . . . This appears to be the great reason why the lands on the Delaware and Connecticut Rivers produce to the farmer twice as much clear profit, as lands in equal quantity and of the same quality on the St. L. or."

it full of living organisms. He and his servant suffered from drinking it; but the Albanians said they did not feel the least inconvenience from it. It does not appear whether it was their staple drink.*

Albany was situated on the declivity of a hill, close to the river. There were two churches in it, a Dutch and an English, the Dutch church had a steeple, the English had neither steeple, service, nor minister, at the time of Kalm's visit; but as all the people, except the garrison, understood Dutch, it mattered little. The other steeple shown on the Horn Map is accounted for by the Town Hall, a fine stone building, three stories high, with a steeple, bell, and a gilt ball, and a vane at the top. Some of the houses were built of stone, and roofed with white pine shingles, or Dutch tiles; the native clay not being fit for tiles. Most of the houses were built with the gables towards the street, a great many having only the street end of bricks, and all the other walls of planks. The front door was in the middle of the house, with benches on both sides, and on fine evenings the greater part of the population sat out, "which is rather troublesome, as those who pass by are obliged to "greet everyone, unless they will shock the politeness of the inhabitants." The fort lay higher than any other building and was a great building of stone, in a bad situation, being commanded by several high hills on its western side.

"There is not a place in all the British colonies, the Hudson's Bay settlements excepted, where such quantities of skins and furs are bought of the Indians, as at Albany. Most of the merchants of this town send a clerk or "agent to Oswego, an English trading town upon the lake Ontario, to which "the Indians resort with their furs." Besides this, furs were smuggled from Canada, as has been mentioned.

Kalm gives the inhabitants (with some few exceptions) a very bad character for meanness, dishonesty and rapacity, and conjectures that the origin of the Albanians was a pack of vagabonds sent by the Dutch Government to the frontiers of the colony to be out of the way, leavened only by a

*A good water supply is now obtained from Patroon's Creek, by works leading it from a reservoir 5 miles distant, and a large supplementary supply is pumped from the Hudson to two reservoirs 301 and 245 feet high, respectively. American water generally seems to have acquired a bad reputation, to judge from the following passage in a General Order of May 22, 1758 "Experience having discovered, that ginger and sugar, mixed "with the water of America, prevent the ill effects of it; and preserve the men from fevers and fluxes better "than anything else, yet found out. Brigadier-General Lawrence does, therefore, in the strongest manner "recommend the use of this discovery to the troops."—*Knox's Journal*.

few honest families, who were persuaded to accompany them in the interests of order. He speaks highly of the other inhabitants of Lower New York of Dutch origin. A definite charge against the Albanians was that, though professing to stand neutral during the war between France and England (1744—1748), they not only bought of the French Indians the plate, &c., stolen from the New Englanders whom the Indians had murdered, but encouraged them to get more plunder in the same way, promising to pay well for it. This conduct greatly incensed all the British colonists, and especially the New Englanders, against the Albanians, and, though the New Englanders did not carry out their threat of burning Albany, they and the other British colonists, grudged any help to Albany and its dependencies when it was threatened by the French or Indians in the ensuing war. “The “hatred which the *English* bear against the people of *Albany* is very great, “but that of the *Albanians* against the *English* is carried to a ten times “higher degree.”

It is only fair to say that from the “Memoirs of an American Lady,” which relate to a period about ten years later, a much more favourable idea of the Albanians is derived. The lady was resident in the family of Col. Schuyler, one of the best and most cultivated in America. We find, however, even in this work the charge of corrupting the Indians by supplying excessive quantities of the forbidden “saura” or rum, and cheating them whilst under its malign influence, brought against “the most avaricious and unprincipled of the traders,” and a chapter is devoted to a description, in the form of dialogue, of the way in which the swindling was effected. In the same book the following short and graphic account of Albany at the very date assigned to the Horn Map, occurs. “The City of Albany “stretched along the banks of Hudson; one very wide and long street lay “parallel to the river, the intermediate space between it and the shore being “occupied by gardens. A small, but steep hill rose above the centre of the “town, on which stood a fort, intended (but very ill adapted) for the defence “of the place and of the neighbouring country. From the foot of this hill, “another street was built sloping pretty rapidly down till it joined the one “before mentioned that ran along the river. This street was still wider than “the other; it was only paved on each side, the middle being occupied by “public edifices. These consisted of a market place or guard house, a town “hall, and the English and Dutch Churches. The English Church, belonging

"to the Episcopal persuasion, and in the diocese of the Bishop of London, "stood at the foot of the hill at the upper end of the street. The Dutch "Church was situated at the bottom of the descent where the street terminated; "two irregular streets, not so broad, but equally long, ran parallel to these, "and a few even ones opened between them. The town, in proportion to "its population occupied a great space of ground. This city, in short, was "a sort of semi-rural establishment, every house had its garden, well, and a "little green behind; before every door a tree was planted * * * * of the kind which the owner thought "would afford the most agreeable "shade to the open portico at his door, which was surrounded by seats, and "ascended by a few steps. It was in these that each domestic group was "seated in summer evenings to enjoy the balmy twilight or the serenely "clear moonlight."

Albany was incorporated by Col. Dongan in 1686. It is now the capital town of the state of New York, and has about 60 churches and 100,000 inhabitants.

Half Moon is a small place about ten miles above Albany, in the northern angle formed by the Hudson and the Mohawk. This is probably the place of that name mentioned by Dr. Miller as one of the dependencies of Albany. There is still a village of the same name there. A little above this a small stream, Hosack Creek, shown, but not named, on the Horn Map, flows into the Hudson from the East.

F. Stillwater "receives its name," says Weld, "from the uncommon stillness of the river opposite to it." It was one of the forts erected in the war concluded by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713.* The modern town of Stillwater 23 miles above Albany, has about 900 inhabitants.

Fort Saratoga† 34 miles from Albany, was a wooden fort, built early in the XVIIIth century, to defend the English colonists thereabouts from the attacks of the French Indians, and to protect Albany. Being found untenable, even against the Indians, it was abandoned and burnt by the English in 1747, but, afterwards repaired, it formed one of the chain of

* On the 7th October, 1777, the Battle of Stillwater between Gates and Burgoyne was fought, followed by the retreat of the latter to Saratoga. *q.v.*

† Saratoga is celebrated as the place where General Burgoyne, hemmed in by Gates in the War of Independence, surrendered with all his army of 5,642 men, his stores, ammunition and guns, on the 19th October, 1777. In 1796 Weld found scarcely any remains of the works thrown up by the British and American armies, the trenches having been mostly levelled by the plough.

posts between Albany and Fort Edward in the Seven Years' War. Schuylerville now stands near its site. The modern Saratoga springs are some 12 miles to the west of the Hudson and 5 miles from Lake Saratoga.

Fort Miler, Fort Miller, Fort Nicholson, or Lydius, on the east bank of the Hudson 47 miles N. of Albany. The original fort was built in 1709, and named after General Nicholson. In 1711, on the failure of Nicholson's attempt against Canada, it was burnt by the English. Colonel Lydius afterwards resided there till war broke out again in 1744. It was used as a military post during the Seven Years' War. The artist of the Horn Map has placed it on the wrong side of the river, but he has taken a similar liberty with several other places.* The modern village of Fort Miller has about 125 inhabitants.

Fort Edward, 55 miles N. of Albany, an important fort, built in 1755. Its importance both for strategical purposes and as a protection to the English trade with the Indians, will be understood from the following quotation from Smith's "History of New York," 1757.

"There are three routes from Crown Point to Hudson's River; one "through Lake George; another through a branch of Lake Champlain, bearing "a southern course, and terminating in a basin several miles east of Lake "George, called the 'South Bay'; the third by ascending Wood Creek, a "shallow stream about 100 feet broad, which comes from the south-west and "empties itself into the south branch of Lake Champlain. The place where "these three routes meet on the Hudson River is called the carrying place. "Here Fort Lyman, since called Fort Edward, is built; but Fort William "Henry, having a much stronger garrison, was erected at the south end of "Lake George after the repulse of the French forces under the command of "Baron Dieskau, 8th September, 1755."

Fort Edward was the frontier fort of the English in 1755, though they claimed the territory as far as the north end of Lake Champlain. It should be observed that on the Horn Map the Cross of St. George flies over the fort, as this seems to have some bearing on the probable date of the Horn.

The fort stood near the river on the east bank. It was dismantled prior to the War of Independence, and there was no fighting there, though the

* Before Fort Edward was built the route was from Fort Miller to Fort Anne, on Wood Creek. Fort Anne was built by Nicholson in 1709, and burnt by him in 1711, at the same time as Fort Miller.

hostile armies met in the neighbourhood. Schuyler retired past it before Burgoyne, who followed to his fate. In 1796 there was a village of the same name containing about twenty houses. The modern town has upwards of 3,000 inhabitants.

The distance over the portage from Fort Edward to Lake George was from 12 to 14 miles. It was near the middle of this portage that Dieskau was defeated in 1755. In 1759 Amherst erected a fort, which was named after him, about half-way across. This is not shown on the Horn Map. Crossing the portage we come to—

Fort George. This is 65 miles from Albany and was built in 1759 on the site of the cantonments outside the ill-fated Fort William Henry,* the story of which has been told above (*vide* Chapter VII.), and which may also be read in Carver's travels, Father Roubaud's account, Bancroft's and Parkman's histories, and in Fenimore Cooper's Romance "The Last of the Mohicans." The Seven Years' War was practically over in America when Fort George was built, and it was never used for military purposes, though much valuable time was wasted in its erection. The modern town of Lake George with about 350 inhabitants stands on the site. The fort is now a picturesque ruin.

We have now passed the last English fort, and the next we shall meet will be French. But first we come to

Lake George, discovered by the devoted and ill-fated French Missionary Isaac Jogues in 1642, and by him named Lake "Saint Sacrement"; the Indian name was "Andiaroote." At the north end it is united to Lake Champlain by a rapid river about four miles long, which falls in that distance 157 feet. The Lake is celebrated for its fine scenery. The Horn Map is very incorrect here, and reference should be made to the accompanying reductions from Sauthier's Hudson's River and Captain Carver's map, (Plates VI. and VII.) to see how the two lakes lie with regard to one another.

Lake Champlain† was first so called by the French after Champlain's

* The name Fort William Henry is sometimes applied to Fort George in maps of later date than 1759.

† In 1759, the French, retreating, sunk their fleet between Michaels Island and the Western shore; in October, 1776, an engagement between the British and American fleets between Isle Valcour and the Western shore, resulted in the repulse of the Americans, under Arnold, who burnt the fleet off Crown Point, and destroyed the fort and town, which were taken possession of by General Carleton; in September, 1814, Captain McDonough defeated and captured a British flotilla on this Lake near Plattsburg, Cumberland Bay.

victory over the Iroquois near the site of Crown Point in 1609. It was also called Corlaers Lake, after the Dutch founder of Schenectady (see p. 117), who was drowned in it when on his voyage to Canada in 1665 or 1666. The Dutch called it "Het meer vand Iroeoisen." Pownall says its Indian name was "Caniad—eri guarunte," *i.e.*, the mouth or door of the country. It is about 120 miles in length, including South Bay,* and varies in breadth from one to eighteen miles. It lies in the hollow between the Adirondacks and the Green Mountains, and contains a great number of islands, the largest of which, formerly called Grande Isle, and afterwards South Hero, is fifteen miles long by four broad. The depth of the lake is, in places, as much as 100 fathoms. The shores are rocky. It begins in the south where Wood Creek unites with South Bay, near the modern Whitehall, and terminates on the north in the River Richelieu. The western shore is generally mountainous; on the east is a low-lying tract with mountains beyond. The scenery is very beautiful.

When Kalm travelled from Fort Anne, by way of South Bay, to Montreal, in 1749, he found Wood Creek and the narrower parts of Lake Champlain much obstructed by trees lying across the water; some had fallen in the course of nature, others had been felled by the beavers, others by the French during the then recent war, to impede any English advance by that route against Canada.

Ticonderoga,† spelt **Ticontroga** on the Horn Map (Cheonderoga,

* South Bay and South River are treated by Kalm, Aubrey and others, as part of Wood Creek, and are so called by them.

† The two forts Crown Point and Ticonderoga appear again in the history of the War of Independence. Ticonderoga was the first place taken from the English by the rebels, after the Battle of Lexington. On the 10th May, 1775, it was surprised by the Green Mountain Boys, under Ethan Allen and Seth Warner. With the fort were taken nearly 50 prisoners, more than 100 pieces of cannon, one 18-inch mortar, a number of swivels, and stores and small arms. Fort Crown Point, with its garrison of 12 men, immediately surrendered to a detachment under Seth Warner. The new born Congress hesitated to keep what had been taken, as there was, at first, considerable reluctance to sever all ties with England, and hopes were entertained that a satisfactory settlement might still be effected. The actual captors however protested. The Massachusetts Congress remonstrated, and Connecticut sent 1,000 men to defend the fortresses. The English contemplated their recapture, but the Americans were beforehand with them with their invasion of Canada. Starting from Crown Point, Allen made a rash attempt to surprise Montreal, and was captured and sent a prisoner to England. On the 18th October, 1775, after a siege of a day and a-half, the Americans took Fort Chamby, with the colours of the 7th Regiment, 168 prisoners, 17 cannon, and 6 tons of powder. On the 12th November, Montgomery took possession of Montreal, and marched thence to Quebec, which he besieged. There he was killed and his forces were repulsed; they retreated from Canada, evacuated Montreal in June, 1776, and retired to Crown Point. In 1777 the Americans abandoned Crown Point, Ticonderoga, and Forts George and Edward on Burgoyne's advance. In the war of 1812 General Dearborn led an expedition against Canada by the Champlain route, but was defeated by the English at the River la Colle.

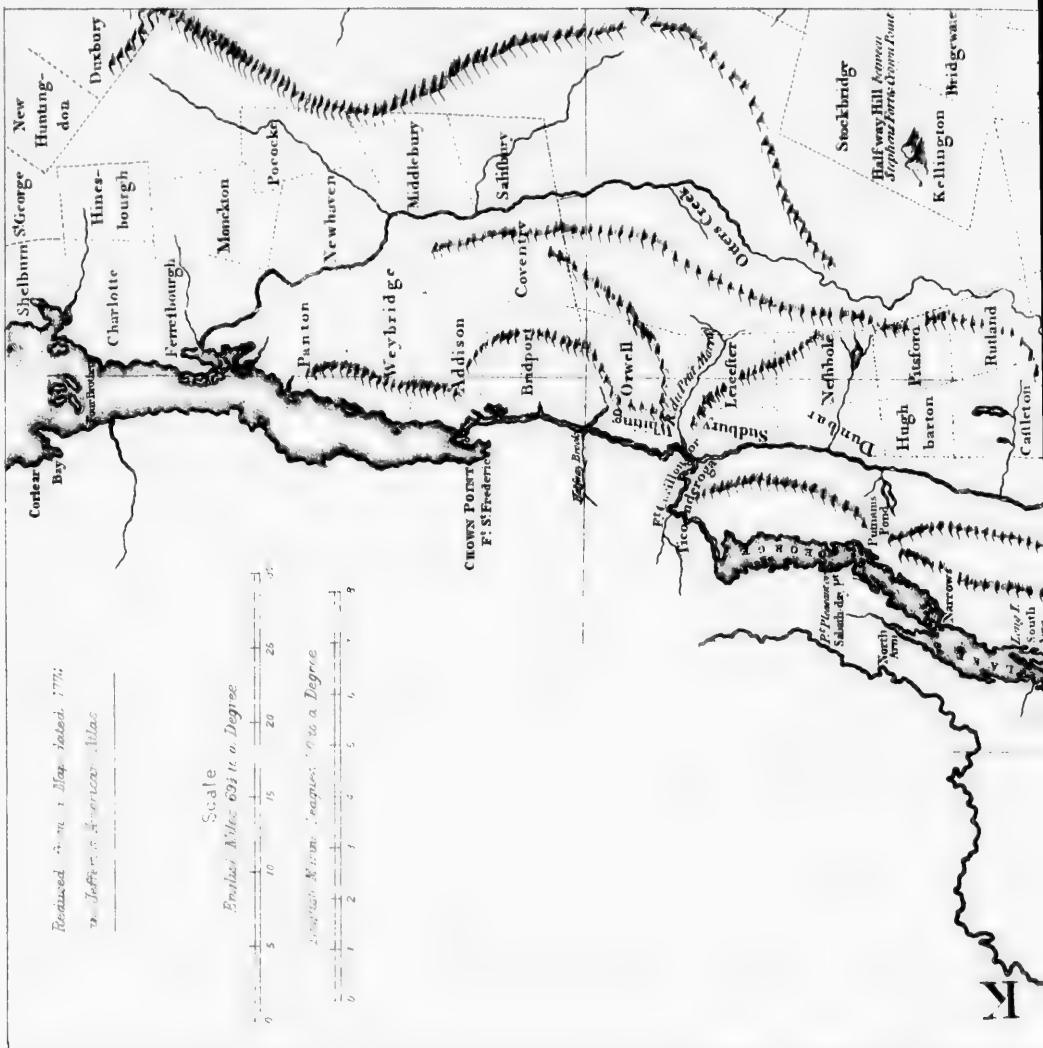


Apenninulae Historiae Plate VII.

Reduced in 1890 rated 1776.
in 1891 increased 1826.

Scale

5 P.M. 10.0°C 0.2 ft. 0. Log free



W. O. T. F.
Connecticut River as far by the Major
Council to the Islands between N. Y.
and N. Hampshire.
The Townships arranged by the

Connexions
of the
Council
and New
WPA Town
by the
R. S. S.

or Three Rivers), was first fortified by Dieskau on his advance to meet Johnson in 1755. The French fort was called by them Fort Carillon, and was placed on the promontory just north of the river which unites Lakes Champlain and George. The two attacks during the Seven Years' War have been mentioned above. When Weld passed through in 1796, the only dwelling there was a tavern. The old fort and barracks were quite in ruins, but even these were not those of the French fortifications, but of the batteries and forts added by the Americans during the War of Independence. The modern town of Ticonderoga which has a population of about 1,800, is two or three miles from the old fort.

Fort Crown Point, or Fort St. Frederick, was about 8 miles further north on a promontory on the west side of Lake Champlain. The Indians called the place "Tek-ya-dough-nigarigee," that is, "the two points immediately opposite to each other." The Fort was built on a rock of black limestone; it was nearly quadrangular with high, thick walls of the same stone. It had a bombproof tower in which the governor lived, a church and stone houses for the garrison. Near it, and in a more commanding position, was a windmill, which served as a look-out place, and carried five or six small cannon. The country was inhabited, at the time of Kalm's visit, for about a French mile above the fort, after that there was nothing but forest till about ten miles south of Fort St. John, which was forty-one French miles from Crown Point. The modern town is called Crown Point or Hammond's Corners.

Kalm mentions that there was formerly a wooden fort (probably Fort Ste. Thérèse built by Sorel about 1665) on the east of the lake, abandoned and overgrown in his time. This part of the country had been often harried by the English and their Indian allies.

The River Richelieu, also called R. Champlain, R. of the Iroquois, R. Chamby, R. St. John and R. Sorel, flows from Lake Champlain into the St. Lawrence at the place called Sorel. In the river, a few miles from the lake, lies the Isle aux Noix, to which the French retreated after the capture of Crown Point and Ticonderoga by the English in 1759. Higher up was the French Fort St. John, which is not shown on the Horn Map. It was a wooden fort, built in 1748, to protect the intended French settlements around it and to serve as a magazine to Fort Crown Point. A good road, eighteen miles long, was made from here to Prairie de la Madeleine on the St. Lawrence, by which Montreal was within a day's journey and Quebec

within seven days. Just below Fort St. John there were shallows, impassable except by canoes or bateaux, which are now avoided by the Chamby Canal, which has a rise of 79 feet.

Fort Chamby, or Chamblan (built by a Captain Chamby in 1665), was four miles lower down the river. From this point an older and more devious road than that from St. John's led to Prairie de la Madeleine. The fort stood close to the rapids on the Sorel River. Charlevoix writes: "Une des principales défenses de Montreal contre les Iroquois et Nouvelle York est "le Fort de Chamby." It was originally built of wood, but afterwards re-constructed of stone, and strongly armed and garrisoned. It was not however defended by the French in 1760. In 1796 it was in good repair and well garrisoned. The modern town of Chamby, Canada, has about 1,500 inhabitants.

TABULA CORNEA. SECTION III.

ALBANY TO NIAGARA. (PLATE VIII.)

The Mohawk, shewn but not named on the Horn Map, flows into the Hudson from the west about ten miles above Albany. It is 140 miles in length. Three miles from its mouth, where it is 300 yards wide, the river falls over an almost perpendicular wall of rock seventy-five feet high. This is the Cohoes Fall, and it effectually prevents continuous navigation of the river.

Colden in his memorial* to Governor Burnet in 1724, before quoted, thus describes the trade route by this river:—

"From *Albany* the *Indian Traders* commonly carry their Goods sixteen Miles over Land, to the *Mohawks River* at *Schenectady*, the Charge of which is *Nine shillings New York Money*, or *Five Shillings sterling* each Waggon-Load. From *Schenectady* they carry them in canoes up the

* "A Memorial concerning the Furr-Trade of the Province of New York. Presented to H. E. William Burnet, Esq., Captain-General and Governor, &c., by Cadwallader Colden, Surveyor-General of the said province, the 10th November, 1724."

“ *Mohawks River*, to the carrying-place between the *Mohawks River* and “ the River which runs into the *Oneida Lake*; which carrying-place between “ is only three miles long, except in very dry Weather, when they are “ obliged to carry them two miles further.* From thence they go with the “ Current down the *Onondaga River* to the *Cataracui Lake*. The Distance “ between *Albany* and the *Cataracui Lake* (this way) is nearly the same “ with that between *Albany* and *Monreal*; and likewise that between “ *Monreal* and the *Cataracui Lake*, and the Passage much easier than the “ last because the Stream of the *Mohawks River* is not near so strong as the “ *Cataracui River* between the *Lake* and *Monreal*, and there is no Fall in “ the River save one short one; whereas there are at least five in the “ *Cataracui River* where the canoes must be unloaded.”

Schenectady (misspelt on the Horn Map, **Chinakety**), called by the French Corlaer, lies on the south bank of the Mohawk, fifteen miles from its mouth, and a little further from Albany by direct road. It was founded by Corlaer, a Dutchman, before 1660. It was for a considerable time the frontier town and most western settlement of the Europeans. Its name, appropriately bestowed in its earlier days, signified “ the first place seen after coming out of the woods.” Here, in 1665, Corlaer,† by an amiable ruse, rescued a French force from the vengeance of the Indians whom it had come to attack. This was one of the many similar acts of humanity performed by the Dutch to the French.

Dr. Miller's mention of Schenectady has already been quoted (p. 108), and allusion has been made to the French raid upon it in the winter of 1688-9. On this occasion sixty-three persons were massacred and twenty-seven carried off as prisoners by the French Indians. The inhabitants, deeming themselves protected by the intense severity of the weather, kept no watch whatever. The French force arrived before the place in the greatest extremities from cold, hunger and exhaustion, and afterwards declared that they had approached the town intending to give themselves up; but, reaching the middle of the town without having been observed, they saw the opportunity for a surprise and took advantage of it.

* For more than four months in the summer of 1796, the Mohawk river was so low, that the traders had to resort to land carriage. The navigation of the river was said to be getting worse every year, and the necessity for making canals was becoming apparent.

† “ He (Corlaer) had a mighty influence over the Indians; and it was from him, and in remembrance of his “ merit, that all Governors of New York are called Corlaer by the Indians, tho' he himself was never “ Governor.”—*Colden*.

The town passed from the Dutch to the English with the rest of New Netherland in 1664. It was incorporated by Governor Cosby about 1750. In the "Memoirs of an American Lady," written by the daughter of an officer in the 55th Regiment stationed at Oswego, and who accompanied him from Albany to the former place in 1761, the writer describes Schenectady as "a little town, situated in a rich and beautiful spot, and partly supported by the Indian trade." In 1757 it had a large Dutch Church with a steeple. The land around was very fertile, and commonly sold at that time for £45 per acre. It is now a considerable town, with a population of 14,000. The Mohawk was fordable there, except in time of heavy flood.

Johnston (the modern Johnstown) is built on Cayadutta Creek, a little stream which flows into the Mohawk from the north, a few miles above Schenectady. Here Johnson, afterwards Sir William Johnson (see p. 51) built Johnson Hall, one of his fortified houses, "beautifully situated in a plain by the river;" the other, "Johnson Castle, a few miles further up, made a most respectable appearance on a commanding eminence at some distance."

Fort Hunter was one of the wooden forts built to protect the settlers from the Indians. It lay on the south bank of the Mohawk, at the mouth of the Schoharie, about 30 miles west of Albany, and is now represented by a village with about 230 inhabitants, bearing the old name.

Fort Henry. I have been unable to find a fort so called on any map to which I have had access, or any mention of it except the following in the "Memoirs" several times quoted before, "The next day we embarked (at Schenectady) and proceeded up the river with six bateaux, and came early in the evening to one of the most charming scenes imaginable, where Fort Hendrick was built; so called in compliment to the principal Sachem, or King of the Mohawks. The castle of this primitive monarch stood at a little distance on a rising ground surrounded by palisades." The situation of Fort Henry seems to correspond with that of the modern Fort Plain.

Ston Raby (Stone Arabia) lies on the River Caroge on the north side of the Mohawk. It is shown on the Horn Map as having a church with a steeple. It is now represented by a village with about 120 inhabitants.

Fort Harkiman (Herkimer) on the south side of the river where the old Fort actually stood. I have no information as to the date or occasion of its erection; but it was existing in 1757 (Parkman). The modern town of

Herkimer with a population of 2,500 stands on the north bank of the river on the west side of the mouth of West Canada Creek.

Fort Stanwix was built by Brigadier Stanwix, upon the head waters of the Mohawk, during the campaign of 1758, to protect the great carrying place between that river and Wood Creek, Oneida. The portage used to be four miles, and eight when the weather was dry, to the point where Canada Creek and Wood Creek joined, but Shirley, in 1756, reduced the distance to one mile by having Wood Creek cleared out, and further shortened the voyage by water by cutting passages from bend to bend of the creek, and erecting dams to keep up a sufficient supply of water. This useful work was undone by Webb, who also destroyed all the remaining forts, of which several had been built, on this carrying place, on his strategic movement to the rear in 1756.

Wood Creek.—The distance between the portage and Lake Oneida, along Wood Creek, was about 28 miles, and until Shirley's improvements the navigation was very difficult.

Canada Creek runs into Wood Creek from the north. There is another Canada Creek, now called West Canada Creek, which flows into the Mohawk by the City of Herkimer.

Royal Blok House.* This stands at the mouth of Wood Creek, at the east end of Lake Oneida on the south shore. It was probably one of the forts erected by Bradstreet, in 1758, to maintain communication with the Lakes.

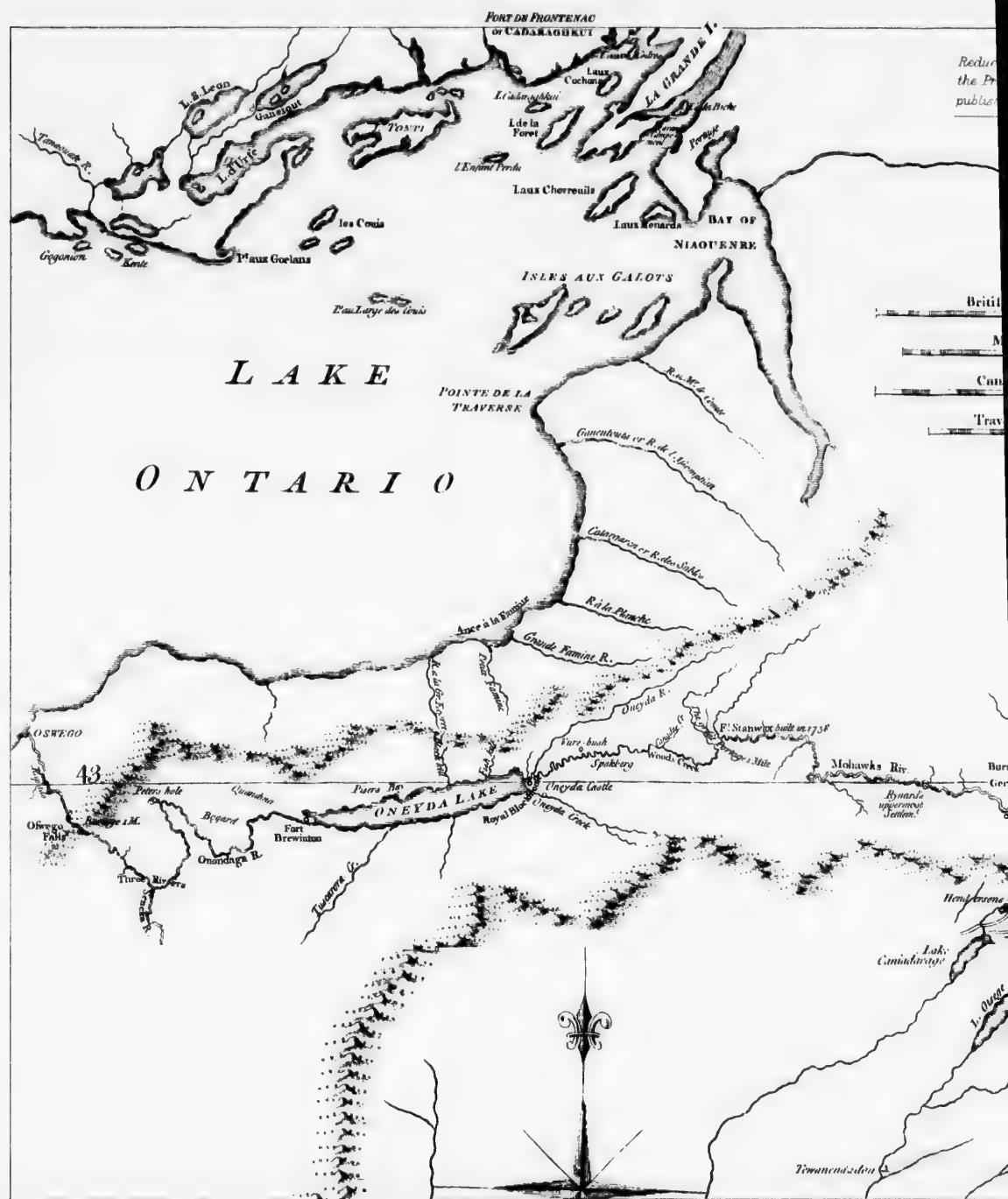
* "A Block House is a building whose walls are formed of thick square pieces of timber. It is usually built two stories high, in which case the upper story is made to project about two or three feet beyond the walls of the lower one, and loopholes are left in the floor round the edge of it, so that if an attempt were made to storm the house the garrison could fire directly down upon the heads of the assailants. Loop-holes are also left in various parts of the walls, some of which are formed of size sufficient to admit a small cannon to be fired through them. The loop-holes are furnished with large wooden stoppers or wedges, which in the winter season, when there is no danger of an attack, are put in, and the interstices closely caulked to guard against the cold; and indeed in order to render the house warm, they are obliged to take no small pains in caulking the seams between the timbers in every part. A block-house built on the most approved plan is so constructed, that if one-half of it were shot away the other half would stand firm. Each piece of timber on the roof and walls is jointed in such a manner as to be independent of the next wall, and the roof is in a great measure independent of all of them, so that, if a piece of artillery were played upon the house, that bit of timber alone against which the ball struck would be displaced, and every other would remain uninjured. A block-house is proof against the heaviest fire of musquetry. As these houses may be erected in a very short time, and as there is such an abundance of timber in every part of the country wherewith to build them, they are met with in North America at almost every military outpost, and indeed in almost every fortress throughout the country."—Weld's Travels.

Lake Oneida is about 22 miles long and 4 miles wide. Its waters flow out to the west by the Oneida river, formerly called also the Onondago River, a little to the west of

Fort Bruinton (also spelt Brereton, Bruerton, and Brewinton), which is referred to in the "Memoirs of an American Lady," lies at the west end of Lake Oneida, and is now represented by the modern town of Brewerton, with between 300 and 400 inhabitants. A few miles to the west, at the place marked **The Three Revers**, the Oneida River joins the Seneca, which comes from the South, and the two together form the Oswego River, also called the Onondago, which descends rapidly towards Lake Ontario, making a considerable fall (16 feet) about 12 miles east of Oswego. Shirley, in 1756, ordered the erection of a fort at these falls, but there were not men enough to carry out the work, which was therefore left undone. Another fall in the river of 34 feet within the limits of the city of Oswego gives immense hydraulic power.

Fort Ontario. On Shirley's arrival at Oswego on August 18, 1755, he found the old fort, though strengthened by Captain Bradstreet, in a very weak condition, mounted only by five three or four-pound guns, and consisting of a stone wall, 605 feet in circumference and $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet thick, so badly built as to be incapable of withstanding the fire of 4-pounders. It was on a slight eminence, but was commanded on the north-east by a high point on the opposite side of the river, 450 yards distant, and by another height to the west 540 yards distant. Shirley, therefore, ordered the erection of Fort Ontario on the height on the east of the river. It was to be 800 feet in circumference, built of logs 20 to 30 inches in diameter, the outer wall 14 feet high, and around it a ditch 14 feet wide and 10 deep; within, a log-house and barracks for 300 men. It was to mount 16 guns. He also directed the erection of another fort on the height to the west. This was to be 170 feet square, with bastions, a rampart of masonry and earth, 20 feet thick and 12 high, and a ditch 14 feet wide and 10 deep; within were to be barracks for 200 men, and the fort was to mount eight guns. These were the three forts surrendered to Montcalm by Colonel Littlehales, who succeeded to the command on the death of Mercer, in the following year, 1756. (See Chapter VI.) The modern Oswego is a centre of the flour and timber trade, and has a population of nearly 25,000. Passing westward along the southern shore of Lake Ontario, leaving Sodus Bay and the mouth





Reduced from Carl Hollando map of
the Provinces of New York and New Jersey.
published 1775 in Joffre's American Atlas

M' Bond in his Map of
Hudson River places the
Lake about 10 miles higher

S C A L E S .

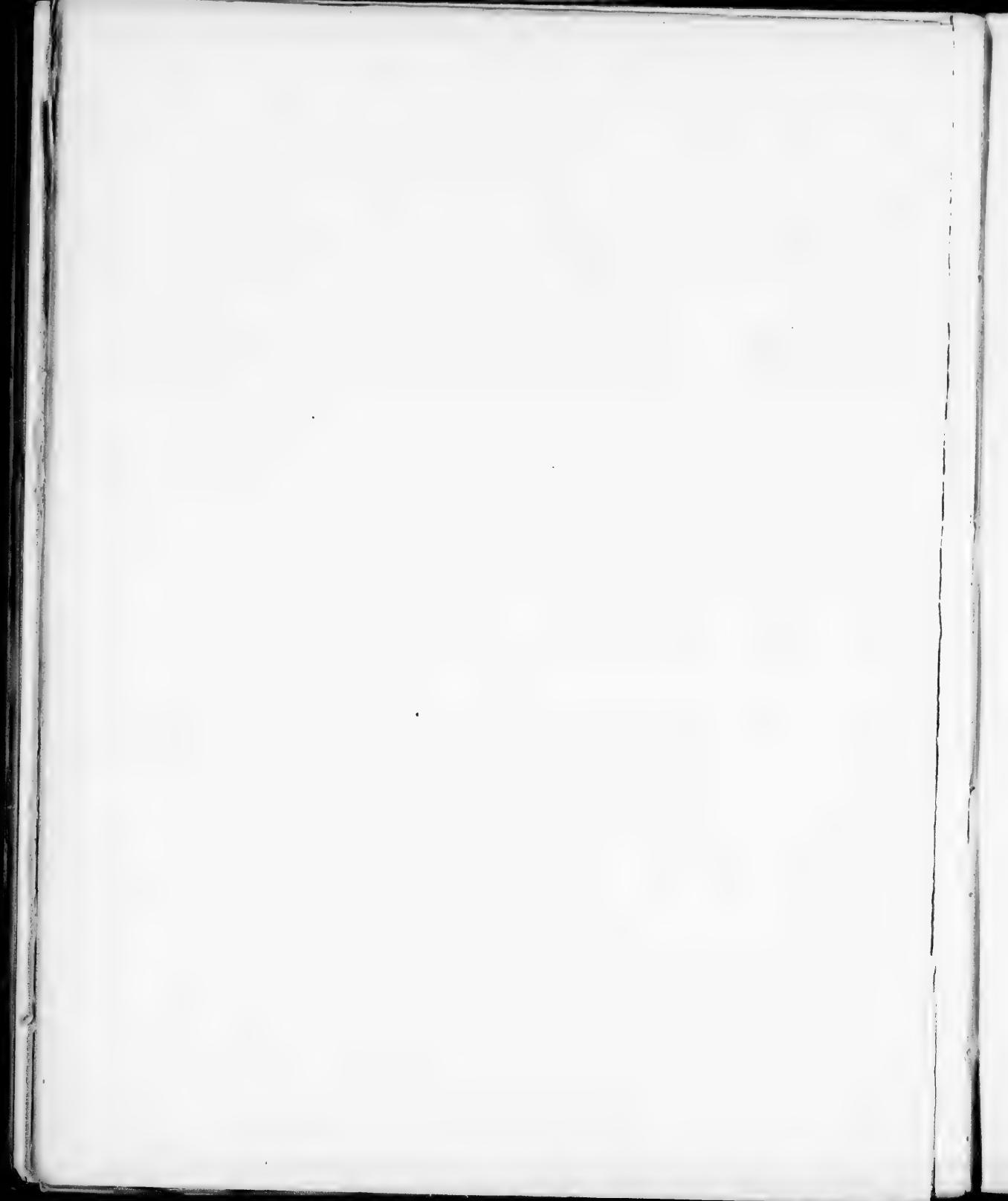
British Statute Miles 60 $\frac{1}{2}$ to a Degree.

Marine Leagues 20 to a Degree.

Canadian Leagues 28 to a Degree.

Travelling Leagues 37 to a Degree.





of the Genesee on the left, Niagara would be reached at a distance of some 125 miles from Oswego.

Niagara (Unghiara or Jagara). In 1755 the French Fort here, built partly of stone, but chiefly of logs, was in a weak and ruinous condition, its garrison consisting of 60 French and 100 Indians. It depended for its support principally upon Fort Frontenac, but partly on Fort Duquesne and the other French Forts to the south of Lake Erie. It was the key to the four Great Western Lakes, and was recognized as such by both the English and French. Consequently the French greatly strengthened it, and when Prideaux besieged and took it in 1759, it was a strong Fort and garrisoned by 600 men. A modern fort stands upon its site on a point of land washed by the river on one side and the lake on the other. The Niagara River, which is sometimes reckoned as part of the St. Lawrence, flows from the south out of Lake Erie nearly due north with a course of about 35 miles. About 18 miles from its mouth are the remarkable Niagara Falls, 1,900 feet wide with a sheer fall of 167 feet. The modern Town of Niagara, called successively Newark, Lenox, Nassau and Niagara, is on the Canadian bank of the river and contains about 1,800 inhabitants.

Lake Ontario (Cataraqui or Frontignae) is the smallest and most easterly of the five great lakes. It is about 190 miles long and 55 wide. Its area is computed at 7,654 square miles. Its surface is 334 feet below that of Lake Erie, and 230 above the tide water in the St. Lawrence. The French had upon this lake Forts Frontenac, Toronto, and Niagara, the last of which only is shown upon the Horn Map. The command of this lake was a vital object in the struggle between the French and English as it meant the possession of the Indian Trade from the great west. The English had, until the capture of Niagara from the French, only the fortified trading place of Oswego on this lake.

TABULA CORNEA. SECTION IV.

MONTREAL TO OSWEGO. (PLATES IX. AND X.)

The St. Lawrence (see Plate X.) carries the waters of the five great lakes, Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie and Ontario, and of their basins

down to the sea, and drains an area of 510,000 square miles. It is only that portion north of Lake Ontario with which we have to do* and particularly that between Montreal and Lake Ontario.

Colden, in the memorial before referred to, writing in 1724, and comparing the English and French trade routes to Lake Ontario, avowedly to the disparagement of the latter, thus describes the St. Lawrence:—
 “The mouth of the River of *St. Lawrence* and more especially the Bay of *St. Lawrence* lies so far North, and is thereby so often subject to tempestuous Weather and thick Fogs, that the Navigation there is very dangerous, and never attempted but during the Summer Months. The Wideness of the Bay, together with the many strong Currents that run in it, the many Shelves and sunken Rocks that are everywhere spread over both the Bay and River, and the want of Places for anchoring in the Bay, all increase the Danger of this Navigation; so that a Voyage to *Canada* is justly esteem'd more dangerous than to any other Part of *America*. * * * The Navigation between *Quebeck* and *Montreal* is likewise very dangerous and difficult. The Tide rises about 18 or 20 Feet at *Quebeck*, which occasions so Strong a Stream that a Boat of six Oars cannot

* Weld gives the following Table of length and breadth of this portion:—

Names of Places.	Distance in Miles.			Breadth in Miles.
At its mouth	90
At Cape Cat	140	30
At Saguenay River	120	18
At the lower extremity of the Isle of Orleans	...	110	...	15 (a)
At the basin between the Isle of Orleans and Quebec	30	5 (b)
From Quebec to Lake St. Pierrie	...	90	...	—
Lake St. Pierrie	...	30	...	14
To La Valterie	...	10	...	1
To Montreal	...	30	...	2 to 4 (c)
To Lake St. Louis	...	6	...	¾
Lake St. Louis	...	12	...	4
To Lake St. Francis	...	25	...	½ to 2
Lake St. Francis	...	20	...	5
To the Lake of 1,000 Isles	...	90	...	½ to 1
Lake of a Thousand Isles	...	25	...	6
To Kingston on Lake Ontario	...	15	...	2½ to 6

753

(a) This Island is 25 miles in length and 6 in breadth; the river on each side is about 2 miles wide.

(b) Thus far 400 miles from its mouth, it is navigable for ships of the line with safety.

(c) To this place, 560 miles, it is navigable with perfect safety for ships drawing 14 feet of water. Vessels of a much larger draft have proceeded many miles above Quebec but the channel is very intricate and dangerous.

“make way against it. The River in many Places very wide, and the Channel “at the same time narrow and crooked. There are many Shelves and sunken “Rocks so that the best Pilots have been deceived; for which reason the Vessels “that carry Goods to *Montreal* are always obliged to anchor before Night tho’ “both Wind and Tide be fair. The flood goes no further than *Trois Rivieres*, “half way to *Montreal*, and about ninety Miles from Quebeck. After they “pass this Place they have a Strong Stream always against them, which “requires a fair Wind and a strong Gale to carry the Vessels against the “Stream. And they are obliged in this Part of the River, as well as under “the *Trois Rivieres* to come to an anchor at Night, though the Wind be good. “These Difficulties make the common Passage take up three or four Weeks, “and sometimes six Weeks; tho’ if they have the chance of a Wind to con- “tinue so long, they may run it in five or six Days.

“After they pass *Montreal* they have a strong Stream against them till they “come to the Lakes; so that in all that, which is about one hundred and fifty “Miles in Length, they force their Canoes forward with setting Poles, or drag “them with Ropes from the Shoar; and at five or six different Places in that “way the River falls over Rocks with such Force, they are obliged to unload “their Canoes, and carry them upon their Shoulders. They never make this “Voyage from *Montreal* to *Cataracui* in less than twenty Days, and fre- “quently twice that Time is necessary.”

The above quotation will suffice to give a general idea of the character of the river. Just below Montreal the river is split into three by the group of islands upon the largest of which Montreal stands. The Island of Montreal and many of those opposite were thickly inhabited, mostly along the shores, and those not inhabited were cultivated, when Kalm passed in 1749. “It “could really be called a village, beginning at Montreal and ending at “Quebec,” he says.

Montreal was the second town in Canada, the first being Quebec, the third *Trois Rivieres*. Its situation and the form of the island on which it stands will be best seen by reference to the Plate IX. The inhabitants for a long time preferred to trust to their own valour for the protection of the town, rather than to rely on artificial defences, but a wall was built round the town in 1738, and, except where it was further protected by the St. Lawrence, it was surrounded by a moat. It was not, however, fit to stand a regular siege, as its area was so large it would have required an enormous garrison.

Most of the houses were of wood. It had several churches, the principal being those belonging to the Sulpitian friars, the Jesuits and the Franciscans. To each of these a college or seminary was attached. There was also a nunnery and a hospital for sick soldiers built by the King. The winters were, and still are, very severe. Kalm was told by some of the friars that the winters were shorter and the summers longer since the country had been cultivated.

Montreal was to the French, in respect of the fur trade, what Albany was to the English. It took away from Trois Rivières most of the trade which used to be carried on through the latter town, which dwindled into comparative insignificance between its two great neighbours, Montreal and Quebec.

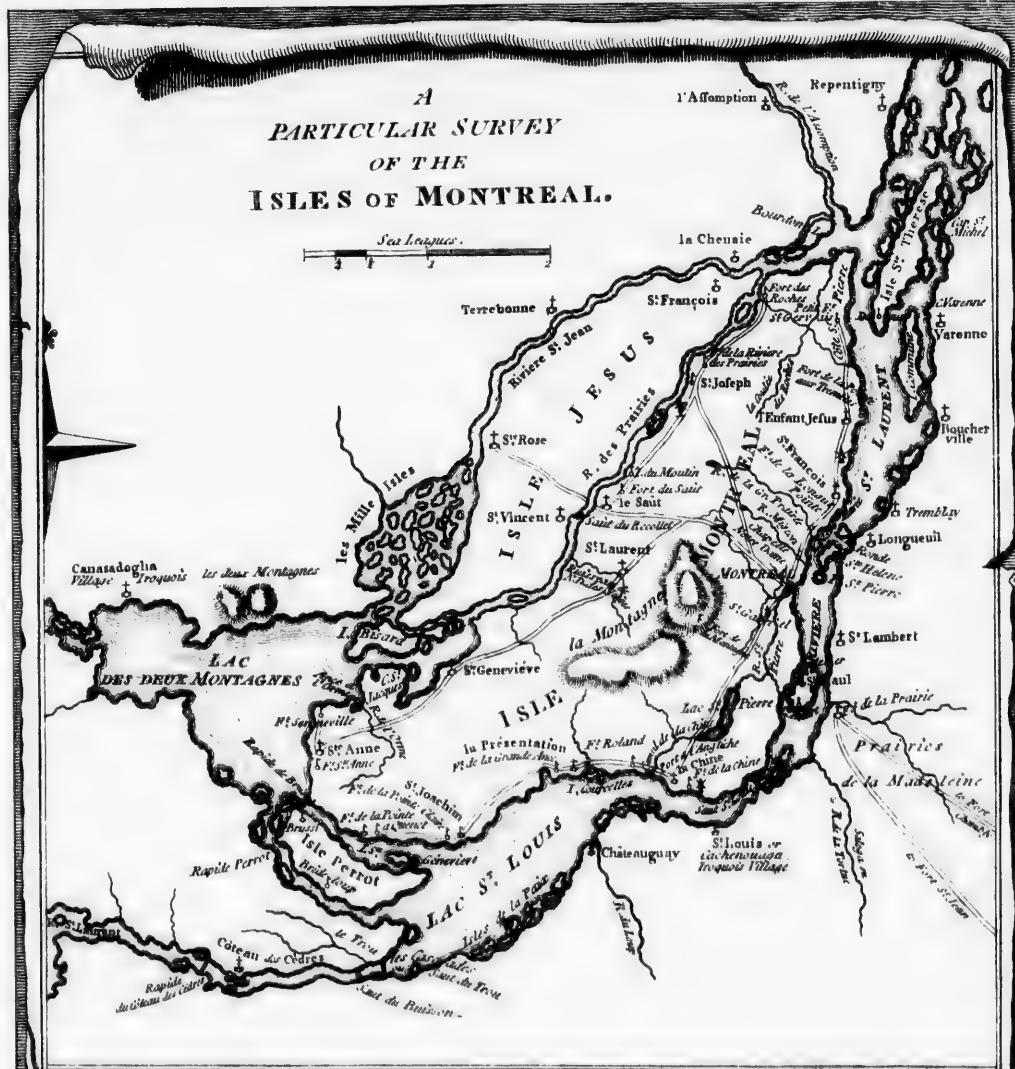
The rapids just above Montreal are so strong as to impede the navigation to such an extent that bateaux going up the river were always laden at La Chine, which stands on the Isle of Montreal, about nine miles higher up, on a fine gravelly beach at the head of a little bay at the lower end of Lake St. Louis. The origin of its name is said to have been an accident which stopped La Salle here when seeking, as so many of his contemporaries and predecessors did, a western way to China. "He talked of nothing at that time but his new short way to China," and, as he failed on that occasion to get any nearer to that empire, the place got its name by way of joke.

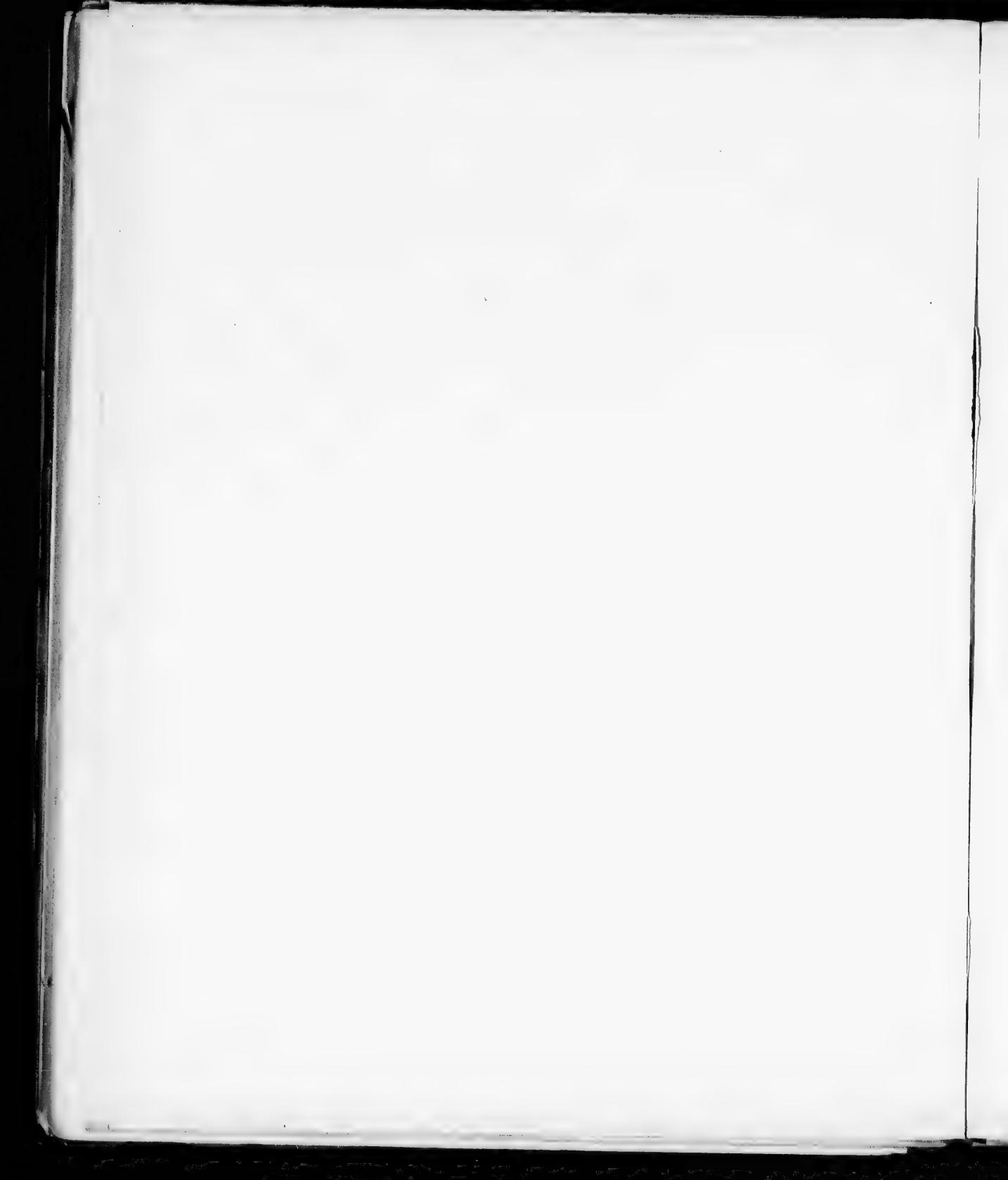
Lake St. Louis is about twelve miles long by four wide. At its upper end it receives the whole body of water in the St. Lawrence and a portion of that flowing from the Ottawa. The two rivers bring a good deal of mud and silt into the lake and render the upper portion shallow. There is a great and dangerous tumult of waters where the two rivers rush into the lake. Immediately above, on the St. Lawrence, was* the "Saut du Trou." It was impossible to get even empty bateaux up against stream, and the boats had to be unladen and carried overland, until a canal, only fifty yards long, was cut, which rendered that labour unnecessary. Above this was a succession of rapids, the first of which was so strong that it was necessary to lighten the bateaux in order to pass it, and the lightened bateaux had to be towed

* The past tense is used in this description (which is drawn from Weld's account) because, even in Weld's time, some of the rapids had been circumvented by the "navigators," and at the present time there are at least six canals with an aggregate length of forty-five miles, which have rendered the ascent of the river comparatively easy.

Inset in Capt. Carver's 'Map of the Province of Quebec
according to the Royal Proclamation of 7th October 1763'
published 1776

Appendix D. Section Plate IX





from the shore. The cargoes were taken in carts over a portage of a mile and a half. After passing the "Rapide de Coteau des Cedres," a few miles of quiet water were met with, and then the "Rapides du Coteau du Lac St. François," which were several miles long, had to be encountered, and these, though not the most dangerous, were the most tremendous in appearance of any in the whole river. Boats were carried down stream at rates estimated at between fourteen and twenty miles an hour. There was a short canal here in Weld's time.

Lake St. François is about twenty-five miles long and five wide. At the upper end of the lake are a number of islands, the largest being as much as ten miles long. From this for forty miles the current was very strong and numerous rapids were to be met with; notable among them for its dangers and difficulties was "Le Long Saut," about thirty miles above Lake St. Francis. It took six men to tow a single bateau against this current, and there was a canal here also in Weld's time, cut in order to avoid a point which could not be passed except by the laborious process of making a portage. Some miles higher up the "Rapide Plat" had to be passed, and half a day's journey further the rapids by La Galet, the last to be met with on the ascent.

Lile au Galot on the Horn Map, is probably intended for "L'isle Galet."

Swegage, chosen by Father Picquet as the seat of his mission, "La Présentation," was situate three miles further up at the mouth of the Oswegatchie River. It was at one time considered that the head waters of the Hudson and the Oswegatchie, of navigable depth, approached each other so closely that this would form a route to Lake Ontario preferable to that by the Mohawk; but the expectation has never been fulfilled. Swegage was on the site of the modern Ogdensburg, a town of upwards of 10,000 inhabitants.

The 100 Ylands. Above the Oswegatchie the current is more gentle. "The Lake of a Thousand Islands" is twenty-five miles long by six wide and contains innumerable small islands, some not larger than a bateau, and none of them, except a few at the two extremities of the lake, more than fifteen or sixteen acres each. "The shores of all these islands under our notice are rocky, most of them rise very boldly, and some exhibit perpendicular masses of rock towards the water upwards of twenty feet high. The scenery

"presented to view in sailing between these islands is beautiful in the highest degree."

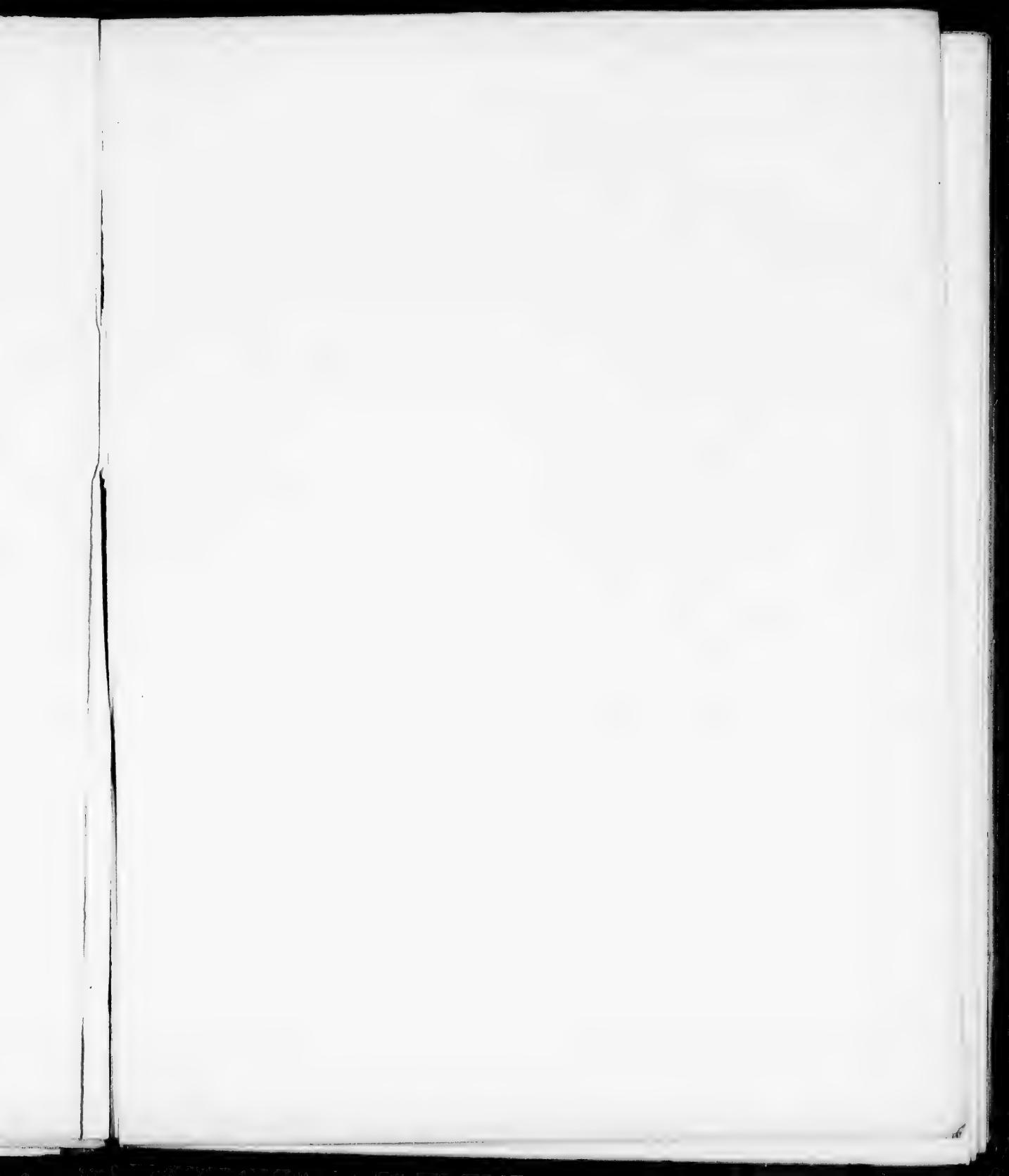
Passing the large "Isle Cauchois" and "La Grande Isle," and many smaller ones, we emerge into Lake Ontario, which has been mentioned more particularly in Section 2.

The sites of two important French stations appear on the Horn Map, though the forts are not shown; the first is Fort Frontenac, or Cadaraqui (see Plate X.); the second is Toronto, which lay on the north side of the lake towards the west end. The first-named is the modern Kingston, the last-named is the modern Toronto.

Passing from the St. Lawrence southward along the eastern shore of Ontario we pass the Isle au Galot, opposite the mouth of "Niaoure Bay," or Sackett's Harbour, and reach Oswego (v. sec. 3).

NOTE.—This seems a convenient place to mention the various kinds of vehicles used for water-carriage, taking Kalm's and Weld's descriptions. The three kinds of boats were: 1. Bark boats, made of the bark of trees and of ribs of wood. 2. Canoes, consisting of a single piece of wood hollowed out by fire. 3. Bateaux.

1. "The bark boats of the Iroquois are generally made of the bark of the American White Elm, because it is tougher than that of any other tree procurable in the Iroquois country. To make such a boat, a thick tall elm, with a smooth bark and as few branches as possible is chosen. If the tree is cut down great care is taken not to bruise the bark in the fall. It is better not to fell the tree but to climb to the top and strip off the bark. The bark is split on one side in a straight line as long as the boat is intended to be, and is peeled off, care being taken not to make any holes; this is easy when the sap is in the tree; at other seasons the tree is heated by fire for that purpose, the bark thus strip off is spread on the ground in a smooth place, the inside downwards, the rough sides upwards and to stretch it better, logs or stones are put on it, then the sides of the bark are gently bent upwards, as some sticks are fixed into the ground, three or four feet apart, in the curve line in which the sides are intended to be. The ribs of the boat are made of thick branches of hickory, they being tough and pliable, cut flat and about an inch thick, and are placed about ten inches apart. The upper edge on each side of the boat is made of two thin poles, flattened where they are to be joined. The edge of the bark is put between these two poles and sewn up with threads of bast made of the bark of hickory, mouse wood, or other tough bark, or with roots. But before this is sewn up the ends of the ribs are also put between the two poles on each side of the boat at proper distances. After that is done the two poles are sewn together and being bent properly, both their ends join at each end of the boat where they are tied together with ropes. To prevent the widening of the boat at the top, three or four transverse bands of hickory are put across from edge to edge, thirty or forty inches apart, the extremities of these bands are put through the bark below the poles, then bent up over the poles and fastened with ropes to the middle of the bands. The crevices at the ends of the boat are stopped with the crushed or pounded bark of the red elm, which in that state looks like oakum, the bottom of the boat is strengthened with strips of bark, or sometimes thin boards laid on the ribs, the side of the bark which has been next the wood thus becomes the outside of the boat, because it is smooth and slippery and cuts the water with less difficulty than the other. The building of these boats is not always quick; sometimes the bark when peeled is found pierced with holes or splits, or is too thin to venture one's life in. Sometimes several elms must be stripped of their bark before one is found fit for a boat. All possible precautions must be taken in rowing in a bark boat. The rivers and lakes contain numbers of broken trees and a sharp branch might tear half the boat away. Such a dangerous vessel must be entered with great care and for greater safety without shoes." (Abridged from Kalm.)



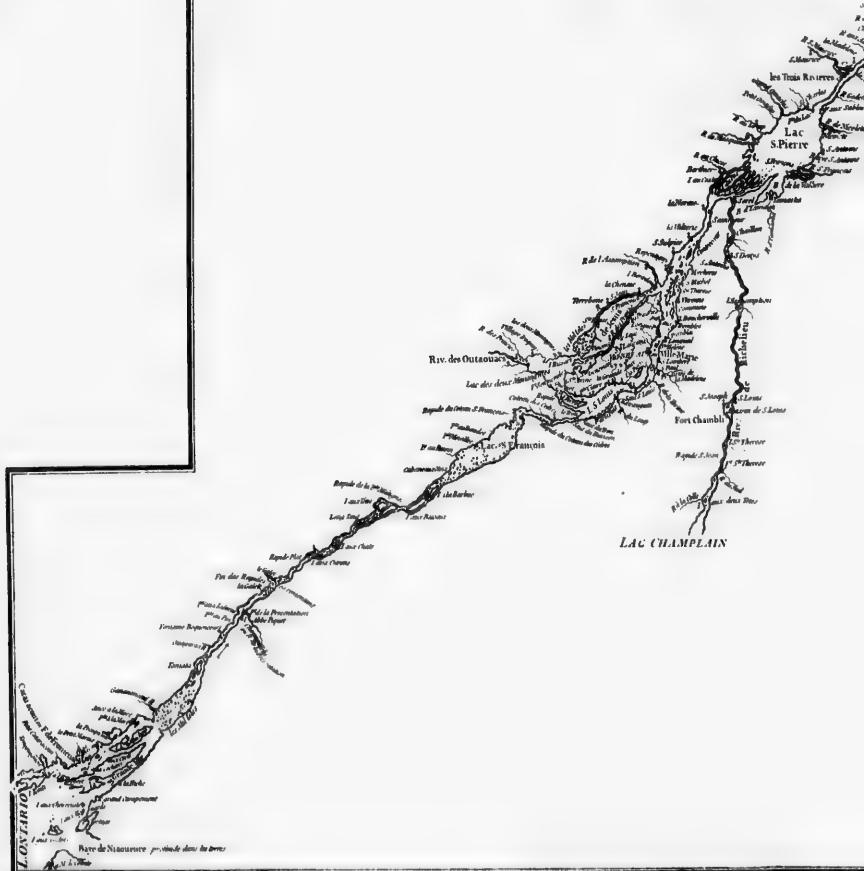
Reduced from the inset map in *Le Sieur D'Anville's large "Canada Louisiane et Terres Angloises"*. Paris 1720

MARINE LEAGUES. SCALE OF ORIGINAL

0 5 10

Appendiculæ Historicæ, plate X.

PARALLELE DE QUÉBEC pour 40 Degrés de Minutes de LATITUDE



Le Sieur D'Anville's large map of
Terres Angloises". Paris 1755.

SCALE OF ORIGINAL.

10 15

Historico, plate X.

Minutes de LATITUDE



LAC CHAMPLAIN



LE FLEUVE SAINT-LAURENT

Représente plus en détail que dans l'étoile de la Carte.

ECHELLE

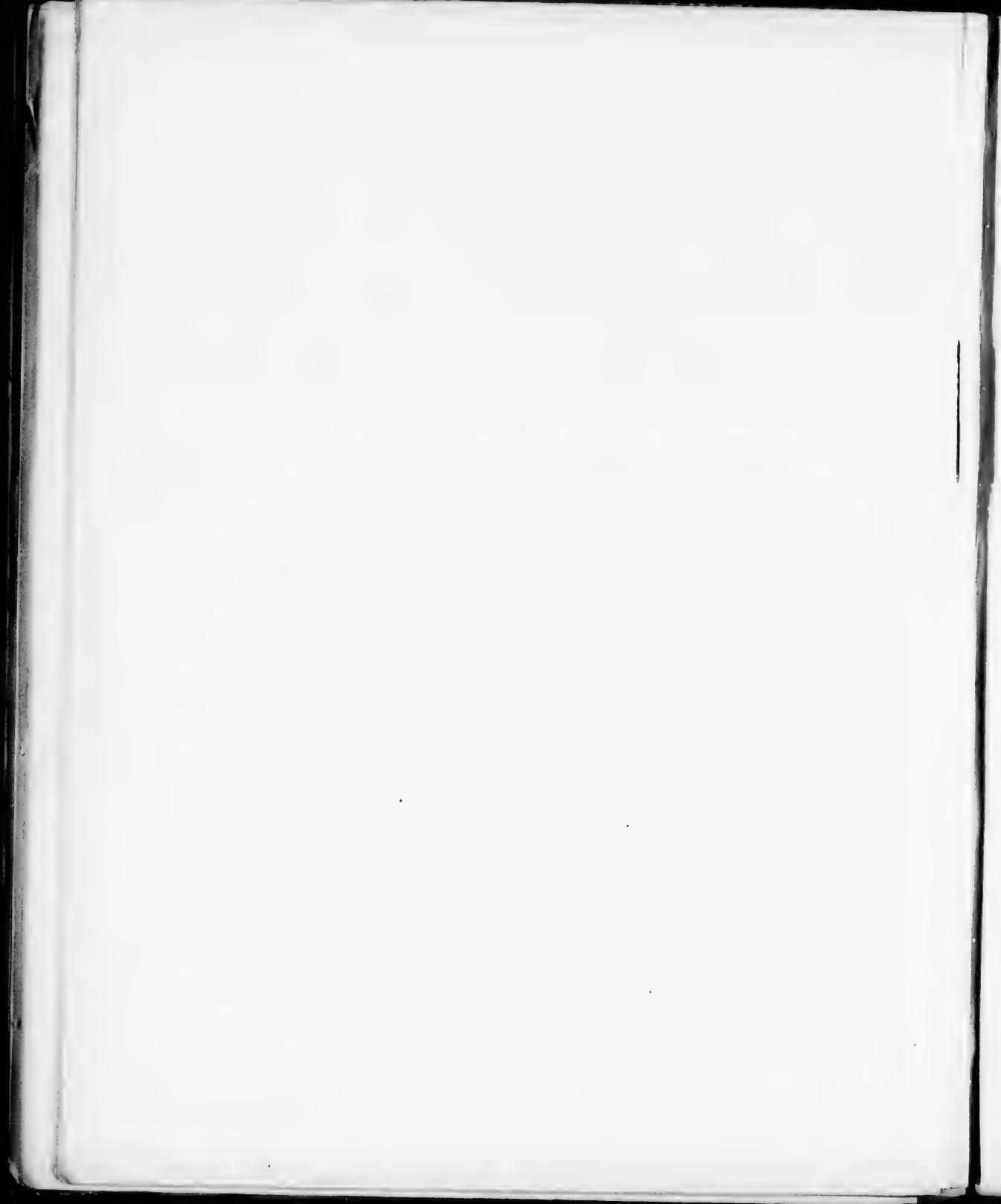
en plus de celle de la Carte

Liens Géodésiques, échelées à 10000 Toises



Liens Marins, de 30 au Degré





Nearly all the birch bark canoes of the Algonquins in use on the St. Lawrence and Ottawa Rivers were made at Trois Rivières, the birch tree being plentiful there. The making of these canoes is described by Weld thus:—The ribs consisting of thick tingle rods are first bound together; then the birch bark is sewn on in as large pieces as possible, and a thick coat of pitch is laid over the seams between the different pieces. To prevent the bark being injured by the cargo and to make the canoe stronger, its inside is lined with two layers of thin pieces of pine, laid in a contrary direction to each other. A canoe made in this manner that is capable of containing six people, can easily be carried by two men. The canoes are made of different sizes to contain from one to twenty men.

2. Canoes (or dug-outs) were commonly made of red cedar or red juniper tree, the white cedar, the white oak, the white pine and the tulip tree. The red and white cedars are the best, being the lightest and most lasting.

In order to make a canoe it was necessary to cut down the tree out of which it was to be fashioned. As the native hatchets were only stone this operation of felling a thick tree had to be effected by the use of fire. A great quantity of wood was heaped around the base of the tree and set fire to, being renewed until the trunk was burnt through. But that the fire might not reach too high, the Indians fastened rags to a pole, dipped them in water and kept continually washing the tree a little above the fire. When the tree was felled, dry branches were laid all along the stem of the tree as far as it was intended to hollow it out, set on fire and renewed as often as was necessary. While these branches were burning, the Indians were busy with wet rags, and pouring water on the tree, to prevent the fire spreading too far on the sides and at the ends. The tree being burnt hollow as far as necessary, they took their stone hatchets or sharp flints or shells and scraped off the burnt wood and smoothed the boat within. By this means they likewise gave it what shape they pleased. The canoe was commonly 30 or 40 feet long.

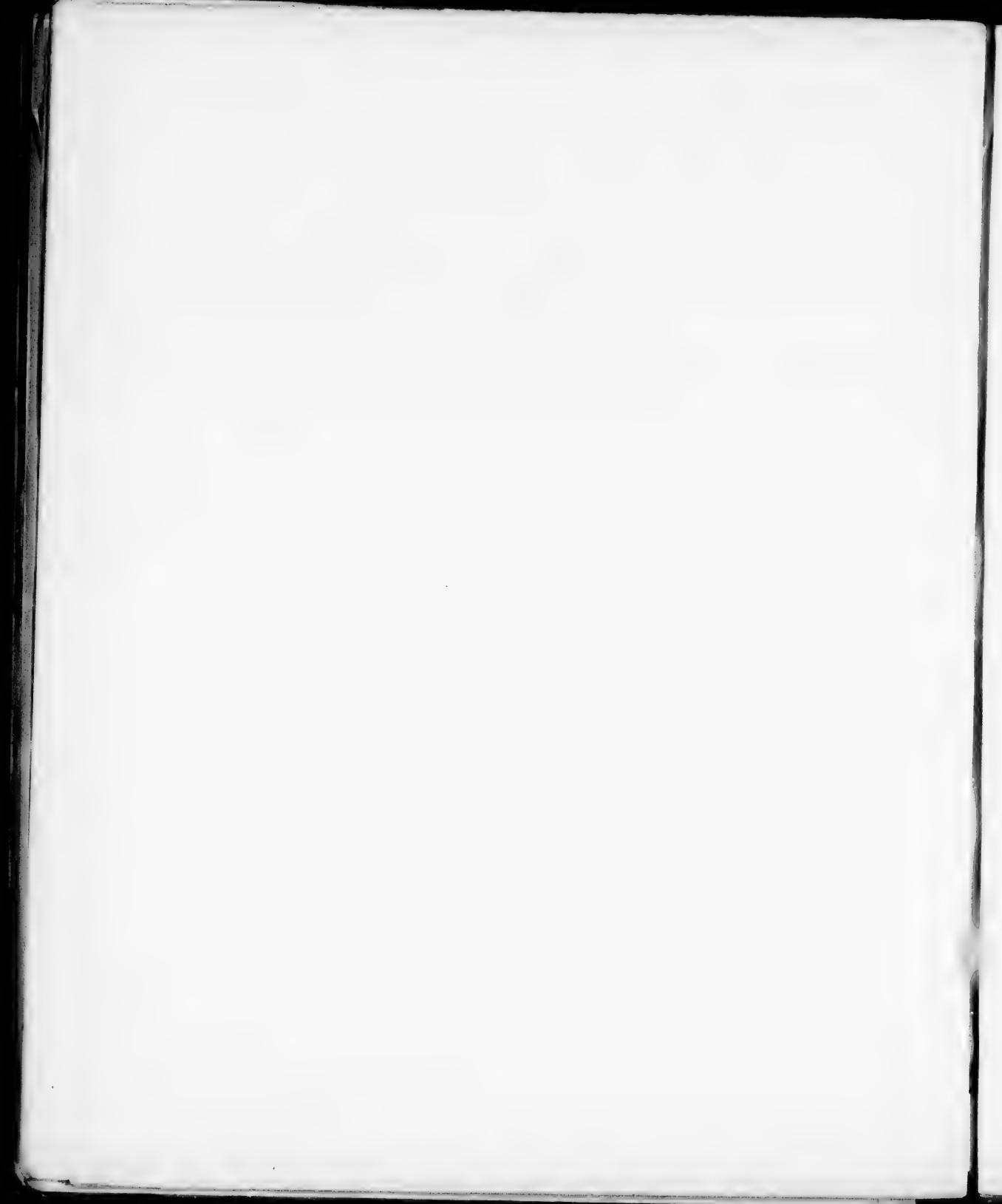
After the arrival of Europeans the stone hatchets were quickly abandoned for iron and other metal implements, which were always procured from the Europeans. Though the country was rich in iron, the Indians (unlike the natives of Africa who not only smelt their own ore but are excellent smiths) never made any use of the metal.

The size of the canoes differed according to the purpose for which they were intended. They could carry six persons, who however might by no means be unruly but sit at the bottom of the canoe in the quietest manner possible, lest the boat overset.

3. Battues or Bateaux were made of boards of white pine or white fir; they were flat bottomed, the bottoms being made of red oak, or more commonly of white oak, which resists a shock better than any other wood. The bateaux were sharp at both ends and somewhat higher towards the end than in the middle. They were from three to four fathoms long. The height from bottom to top of the board (for the sides stood almost perpendicular) was from twenty inches to two feet and the breadth in the middle about three feet six inches. They were chiefly used for carrying goods to the Indians; that is when the rivers were open enough for the bateaux to pass through and they need not be carried far by land. The bark boats were too easily broken, and the canoes could not carry much cargo and were easily upset. The bateaux were therefore preferable to both for carrying weight. They were largely used for carrying troops, guns and stores both by the French and English.

There were four modes of propelling the bateaux, viz., poling or punting, rowing, sailing and towing from the shore; when going against stream several of these were used at the same time. When the wind was favourable it was possible with the combined aid of oars and sails to advance up stream across the mouths of bays and inlets, but with wind adverse and a strong stream it was necessary to follow the shore closely in sufficiently shallow water to allow of the use of the poles.

Shirley introduced the use of whale boats, with a view to an advance against Niagara, and tried them himself on the Mohawk. They were largely used during the Seven Years' War and did excellent service.



NOTES AND REFERENCES.

*"nequicquam deus abscondit
prudens Oceano dissociabili
terras, si tamen invie
non tangenda rates transilunt vada.
audax omnia perpeti
gens humana ruit per vetitum nefas.*

Hor. Carm. Lib. 1., iii.

(A.) PRE-COLUMBIAN VOYAGES.

A.D.

- 986. Biarne Heriulfsen, a Northman, sailing from Greenland, sees coast of Labrador and Newfoundland.
- 1000. Lief Eiriksen, sails to Nantucket Island, Nova Scotia (Markland), Newfoundland (Helluland), Massachusetts (Vinland), and Cape Cod (Kjalarnes). Scandinavian Settlements formed there, and in Virginia and North Carolina (Huitramannaland), as the results of his voyages.
- 1101. Eric Upsi, first Bishop of Greenland, goes on a mission to Vinland (Massachusetts)
- 1147. Voyage of Arabs from Spain, doubtful as to the identity of the land reached, which some suppose to have been America, others some of the islands west of Africa.
- 1170. Madoc Gwyneth, son of Owen Gwyneth, King of North Wales, founds a colony (doubtful).
- 1285. Icelandic priests visit Vinland (Massachusetts).
- 1347. Greenlanders visit Nova Scotia to collect timber.
- 1380 (About). Voyages of the Brothers Zeno, and history of the Frisland fisherman.
- 1431. Gonçalo Velho Cabral (Portuguese) explores the Atlantic and discovers the Azores.
- 1463. Pretended discovery of Newfoundland by João Vas Corteal (Portuguese).
- 1476. Alleged voyage of Jean Szkolny, a Pole in the service of Denmark, to Labrador. (Proof wanting.)

NOTE.—Vague traditions of an Irish colony, prior to A.D. 1000, principally founded on philological grounds, exist, and Charles IX. of France claimed that the Breton fishermen had frequented the cod banks of Newfoundland as early as 1465, but there are no firm grounds for these claims. There is no doubt, however, that the Breton and Basque fishermen did frequent the cod banks early in the XVIth, and probably in the last decade of the XVth century.

(B.) FIFTY YEARS OF DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION IN AMERICA
(FROM 1492 TO 1542).

1492. CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, a native of Genoa, on behalf of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, sails from Palos, August 3rd, 1492, discovers Guanahani (Watling Island, or San Salvador) 12th October; Santa Maria de la Concepcion, 16th October; Fernandina, Isabela (Saomete), 19th October; Colba (Cuba), 28th October; Tortuga and Hispaniola (Hayti or San Domingo), December 6th; sails for home 16th January; reaches the Azores 16th February; Tagus, 4th March, 1493. The brothers Martin Alonso and Vicente Yáñez Pinzon commanded each a ship on this expedition.

1493. CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS (2nd voyage) with Juan de la Cosa, Alonzo de Hojeda, and Ponce de Leon, sails from Cadiz, 25th September, 1493; discovers Dominicana, 3rd November; Marigalante, Santa Maria de Guadalupe, 4th November; San Juan Baptista, reaches Hayti, 12th November; builds the town of Isabela and Fort S. Thomas, reaches Cuba; discovers Yamayé (Jamaica) 4th May; Evangelista (Isle of Pines); sails for Spain, 20th April, 1496, reaches Cadiz, 11th June, 1496.

1494. *Doubtful private adventure voyage by John and Sebastian Cabot.*

1497. *Apocryphal voyage of Amerigo Vespucci to Venezuela.* *The account of this voyage is drawn solely from statements contained in a letter written by Vespucci in 1504.* *The accuracy of it is disproved by Humboldt (Examen Critique, Vol. IV.)*

1497. JOHN CABOT, and his son, SEBASTIAN CABOT, Venetians, settled in Bristol, under a Patent granted 5th March, 1497, by Henry VII. of England, sail from Bristol in the Spring, discover the Continent of America 24th June, 1497, in Labrador between 56° and 58° N. Lat.; also Newfoundland and Nova Scotia; reach England early in August, 1497.

1498. SEBASTIAN (and perhaps John) CABOT (2nd voyage), Summer of 1498. Reaches Labrador and coasts southward to 38° N. Lat. (Maryland), or, perhaps, to 25° N. Lat. (Florida); returns to England in the Autumn of 1497.

1498. CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS (3rd voyage) sails from San Lucar de Berrameda 30th May, 1498, discovers the Island of Trinidad. First sees the continent of America, by the mouths of the Orinoco, 1st August, 1498; calls the land Isla Santa, and afterwards La Gracia; sails through the gulf of Paria, reaches Hispaniola; summoned by Francisco de Bobadilla (sent to enquire into alleged mal-administration of Columbus, and, if proved, to supersede him); put in irons and sent in chains to Spain, arrives there November, 1500, and is immediately released, but superseded as Viceroy by Nicholas de Ovando.

1499. ALONSO DE HOJEDA, accompanied by JUAN DE LA COSA and AMERIGO VESPUCCI. A private adventure for pearl fishing. Sails from Cadiz 16th or 20th May, 1498, Surinam and gulf of Venezuela; visits Hispaniola, sails thence 22nd July, 1500, Cadiz 8th September.
1499. ALONSO NIÑO and CHRISTOVAL GUERRA, June, 1499, to April, 1500, from Seville to coast of Paria; private adventure; no discovery of importance.
1499. VICENTE YAÑEZ PINZON, sails from Palos December, 1499, reaches Brazil, Cape St. Augustin, the Amazon (Río Marañón); returns September, 1500.
1499. DIEGO DE LEPE sails from Palos December, 1499; explores coast of Brazil, South of Cape St. Augustin.
1500. GASPAR COTERREAL (Portuguese) sails from Lisbon in the Spring; explores coast of Labrador, between 60° and 50° N. Lat., and Straits of Belle Isle. Brings back cargo of slaves. Returns to Lisbon 8th October, 1501.
1500. PEDRO ALVAREZ CABRAL (Portuguese) sails for India, round Cape of Good Hope, 9th March. In seeking a missing ship loses his course, and sights coast of Brazil 22nd or 24th April, about 15° S. Lat., Porto Seguro; sends a ship home to announce discovery; proceeds on his voyage and reaches Calicut, round Cape of Good Hope, 13th September, 1500.
1500. RODRIGO DE BASTIDAS, with Juan de la Cosa and Vaseo Nuñez de Balboa, sails from Cadiz October, 1500, coasts from Paria to Isthmus of Panama; returns September, 1502.
1501. GASPAR COTERREAL (2nd voyage) sails 15th May for Labrador on a slaving voyage; never returned.
1501. *Amerigo Vespucci, André Gonçalves commanding. Another apocryphal voyage of Vespucci. (Examen Critique, Vol. IV.)*
1502. ALONSO DE HOJEDA (2nd voyage), with Juan de Vergara, sails from Cadiz January, 1502; Paria, Margarita, Cape Codera, Curiana, Curaçao (Isla de Gigantes), Coquibacoa. A mutiny takes place in May, 1502, and Hojeda is taken a prisoner to Hayti. Returns to Spain January, 1503.
1502. MIGUEL COTERREAL sails from Lisbon 10th May, 1502, towards Hudson's Bay, in search of his brother Gaspar. Expedition lost.
1502. CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS (4th and last voyage) sails from Cadiz 11th May, 1502; Islands of Guanaja (Bonaca, Roatan and Utila), Honduras to Mosquito gulf; returned 7th November, 1504; dies at Valladolid 20th May, 1506, poor and neglected.

1503. GONÇALO COELHO (Portuguese), sails from Lisbon 10th June, to 18° S. Lat.; returns to Lisbon 18th June, 1504. Vespucci claims to have made this voyage.

1504. JUAN DE LA COSA (1st voyage as commander) to the Gulf of Uraba; returns 1505.

1505. ALONSO DE HOJEDA (3rd voyage) sails beginning of year to Coquibacoa, west of Gulf of Venezuela. "Voyage certain, mais tres obseur" (Humboldt).

1506. VICENTE YAÑEZ PINZON (2nd voyage) and JUAN DIAZ DE SOLIS; the Guanaia Islands, Gulf of Honduras and Yucatan.

1506. DENIS, a Frenchman, of Honfleur, explores Gulf of S. Lawrence.

1507. JUAN DE LA COSA (2nd voyage as commander) from Cadiz to Uraba.

1508. VICENTE YAÑEZ PINZON (3rd voyage) and JUAN DIAZ DE SOLIS; sail 29th June, coast to 40° S. Lat.; return October, 1509.

1508. THOMAS AUBERT and GIOVANNI VERRAZANO, sent by merchants of Dieppe, sail beginning of year, enter Gulf of S. Lawrence, and explore the river for 80 leagues; begin to ascend it 10th August, S. Lawrence's Day, whence its name.

1509. ALONSO DE HOJEDA (fourth voyage) and JUAN DE LA COSA, sail from Hayti, 11th November, for Uraba, where Hojeda had been appointed Governor of New Andalusia. In a fight with Indians, near Carthagena, de la Cosa is killed. Hojeda founds S. Sebastian in Darien (the first town on the mainland), returns to Hayti, 1509, and dies there poor and forgotten, about 1515.

1511. DIEGO VELASQUEZ conquers Cuba.

1512. JUAN PONCE DE LEON, Spanish Governor of Borriquen (Porto Rico), in search of the fountain of Bimini, which was reputed to renew youth, sails from Porto Rico, 3rd March; on 27th March, Easter Sunday (Pascua Florida), sees an island, and the mainland of Florida (Cautio) 2nd April; doubles the Cape of Florida, 8th May; Martyr's Island, and Northward eight days to N. Georgia, returns in September or October, 1512.

1513. VASCO NUÑEZ DE BALBOA, then alcade of Santa Maria de la Antigua de Darien, crosses the Isthmus of Darien, and discovers the Pacific (Mar del Sur), of which he takes possession, for Ferdinand of Spain, returns to S. M. de Antigua, 19th January, 1514.

1515. GASPAR MORALES and FRANCISCO PIZARRO cross the isthmus, and visit the Isla Rica.

1515. JUAN DIAZ DE SOLIS sails from Lepe, Spain, 8th October, sights Cape San Roque, coasts southward to the Rio de la Plata (Mar Dulce), while exploring which he is killed and eaten by the natives.

1516. **VASCO NUÑEZ DE BALBOA** transports materials for two brigantines across the isthmus; cruises about Isla Rica; on his return is put into irons by Pedro Arias de Avila; tried on false charges and beheaded in 1517.
1517. **FRANCISCO HERNANDO DE CORDOBA** (with Bernal Diaz del Castillo, afterwards regidor of Guatemala, and the historian of the Conquest of New Spain) sails from San Cristobal, Cuba, February, to N.E. Yucatan (El Gran Cairo), Campeachy, Champoton and Cotoche.
1518. **BARON DE LERY** (French), makes an abortive attempt to found a Settlement on Sable Island, Nova Scotia.
1518. **JUAN DE GRIJALVA**, with Pedro de Alvarado and Bernal Diaz del Castillo, from Santiago, Cuba, 1st May; coast from Yucatan to the River Panuco. Gold obtained from the natives, value about £40,000, and brought to Diego Velasques, then Governor of Cuba. This leads to the fitting out of the two expeditions under Cortes and Pineda, hereafter mentioned.
1518. **SEBASTIAN DE OCAMPO** sails round Cuba, and first establishes the fact that it is an island.
1518. **DIEGO COLUMBUS**, son of Christopher Columbus, appointed Spanish Viceroy (in place of Ovando, who is recalled), and the rights originally granted to the father restored to the son.
1519. **HERNANDO CORTES**, commissioned by Velasquez, with eleven ships and between 600 and 700 men. Muster at Island of Cozumel, E. of Yucatan; camp at St. Juan de Ulloa, where Cortes receives Montezuma's messengers; Cortes sails north, and begins Villa Rica de Vera Cruz, dispatches thence news to Charles V., burnt his remaining ships and marches for the city of Mexico (about 175 miles); relations with Montezuma still outwardly friendly. Montezuma forbids Cortes to enter city of Mexico. Cortes insists, and is received with great pomp, kindness, and rich gifts, 19th November, 1519. Pamphilo de Narvaez is dispatched by Velasquez to bring back Cortes by force. Cortes meets and defeats him at Zempoala 1520, and returns to Mexico. Cortes falls out with the Mexicans, and on the 13th August, 1521, takes the city of Mexico after a siege of ninety-three days. Destroys the city and massacres the inhabitants. The historian of this expedition is Bernal Diaz del Castillo, who accompanied it.
1519. **ALONSO ALVAREZ DE PINEDA** (dispatched by Francisco de Garay, Governor of Jamaica and Governor elect of the provinces bordering on Rivers San Pedro and San Pablo and of all the countries he should discover) with three vessels and 240 men lands in Appalachicola Bay, Florida, but the natives repulse him. Coasts westward to the Panuco; Pineda, and his soldiers and horses massacred by the natives, and his vessels burnt, except one under Comargo, which reaches Villa Segura.

1519. FERNAM DE MAGALHAENS (Magellan), a Portuguese, on behalf of Charles V., from Seville 10th August (Antonio Pigafetta, who accompanied, is the historian of the voyage), by Sierra Leone, to Terra de Verzino (Land of Redwood). Enters Rio de Janeiro 13th December, coasts to the La Plata and reaches Port St. Julian, $49^{\circ} 30' S.$ Lat. May 1520; Strait of Eleven Thousand Virgins, $52^{\circ} S.$ Lat. 21st October; passes through the Straits of Magellan and emerges into the Mar del Sur, to which he gives the name of "the Pacific," 28th of November, 1520, passes the Ladrone Isles and Philippine Isles, where Magellan is killed by the natives in the Island of Zuba, 27th April, 1521. Ships sight the Moluccas or Spice Islands 6th, and reach Tadore 8th November, 1521. Thence, Juan Sebastian del Cano, in command of the *Victoria* (the only remaining ship of five which sailed) sails 21st December, 1521, and reaches Seville 8th September, 1522. This is the first recorded circumnavigation of the globe. Estevan Gomez, a pilot, deserted with one ship from the straits of Magellan and reached Spain 6th May, 1521.

1520. LUCAS VASQUEZ DE AYLLON, from La Plata, Hayti, to kidnap slaves. Through the Bahamas, along the coasts of Florida and Georgia to Cape S. Helena and the R. Jordan (probably the Santee R., South Carolina.)

1521. JUAN PONCE DE LEON, appointed governor of Bimini and Florida, sails to take possession, repulsed by the natives, wounded—dies in Cuba soon after.

1523. GIOVANNI VERRAZANO, a Florentine (2nd voyage), on behalf of Francis I. of France. Sails from Dieppe late in the year. Madeira 17th January, 1524; coast of North Carolina about Cape Fear, 10th March, O.S.; coasts northward, passing Chesapeake Bay in the night, crosses Peninsula of Virginia and thinks Chesapeake Bay a strait leading to China; enters Bay of New York, anchors in Narragansett Bay and coasts north to Nova Scotia, returns to France July, 1524.

1523. FRANCISCO GARAY, appointed governor of the province of Panuco, sails from Jamaica, in June, to take possession of his territory, fails, and dies in the city of Mexico, December, 1523.

1525. ESTEVAN GOMEZ (who deserted Magalhaens), in search of a northern route to India, explores coasts to New York and New England.

1526. LUCAS VASQUEZ DE AYLLON, appointed, in 1523, governor of many islands and provinces between 35° and $37^{\circ} N.$ Lat., sails July, 1526, from Hispaniola, with six ships and 500 men, to take possession, lands in Florida, is attacked by the natives, and defeated. Lucas, with 150 survivors, returns to San Domingo, and dies there, 18th October, 1526.

1526. SEBASTIAN CABOT, then in the employ of Charles V., sails to the Rio de la Plata.

1526. **FRANCISCO DE HOCHAS**, in command of a ship under Garcia de Loaysa, gets separated from the squadron, and discovers Cape Horn.
1526. **FRANCISCO PIZARRO**, at Quito; returns to Spain.
1528. **PAMPHILO DE NARVAEZ**, appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Florida by Charles V., lands in Tampa Bay, marches into the country, is repulsed by the natives, embarks in crazy boats in the Gulf of Florida, and is lost. **Alva Cabeça de Vaca**, his only surviving officer, with three companions, after eight years' captivity, wanders across the Mississippi and Rio Grande del Norte, and arrives at Compostella, on the Gulf of California; returns to Spain, 1537.
1530. **NUÑEZ DE GUZMAN** founds Compostella and Guadalaxara, and New Galicia.
1531. **FRANCISCO PIZARRO**, with **Diego de Almagro** and **HERNANDO LUQUE**, leads an expedition to Peru. Civil war in progress between rival kings Huascar and Atahualpa. Pizarro pretends an alliance with the latter, and so gets into the country, takes Atahualpa prisoner by treachery, exacts an enormous ransom, has him tried for pretended conspiracy, condemns him to be burnt, kindly permitting him to be first strangled, in consideration of his becoming a Christian. Pizarro founds Lima 1535, reigns despotically for six years, puts Almagro to death, 1538, and is assassinated 26th June, 1541.
1534. **HERNANDO CORTES** sends several exploring expeditions, one of which, probably that under Grijalva, discovers the Peninsula of California; returns to Spain 1540, and dies there 2nd December, 1547, neglected and forgotten.
1534. **JACQUES CARTIER**, for Francis I. of France, St. Malo; 20th March, 1534; Newfoundland 10th May; explores coast of Labrador, Straits of Belle Isle, and part of Gulf of St. Lawrence; returns to St. Malo 5th September.
1535. **JACQUES CARTIER** explores the St. Lawrence as far as the Island of Hochelaga, names the mountain there Montreal; returns to St. Malo 6th July.
1535. **GARCIA HURTADO DE MENDOZA** founds Buenos Ayres.
1535. **JUAN DE GRIJALVA** (equipped by Cortes) in California.
1536. **THE YOUNGER ALMAGRO**, from Peru, invades Chili, but is recalled by a revolt of the Inca, Manco Capac.
1540. **PEDRO DE VALDIVIA** invades Chili and founds St. Iago.
1540. **FRANCISCO DE ULLOA** explores the coast of Chili and reaches California.
1540. **FRANCESCO VASQUEZ CORONADO**, Governor of New Galicia, in search of the seven cities of Cibola, reaches Taos (New Mexico) Red Fork of the Arkansas River, crosses Little Colorado and finds Big Colorado River; goes round head of Gulf of California, and down the Peninsula to the south of 30° N. Lat.

1540. GONZALO PIZARRO crosses the Andes from Peru and reaches the Coca or Napo, one of the head waters of the Amazon.

1541. FRANCISCO ORELLANA, an officer in command of Pizarro's only boat, and fifty men, deserts (February 14th), descends the Amazon, reaches its mouth August 26th, and arrives safely at Cubagua.

1541. FERDINAND DE SOTO lands in Tampa Bay, penetrates Florida, Georgia, to the Savannah River, and the modern States of Alabama, Mississippi, Missouri, and Arkansas; meets great opposition from the natives; dies and is buried in the river. Moscoso leads the wreck of the expedition down the river to its mouth and thence to Panuco.

1541. JACQUES CARTIER (3rd voyage), as Captain-General under Roberval, sails 23rd May, 1541, from S. Malo up the St. Lawrence to River of Cape Rouge; builds a fort there—Charlesbourg Royal; abandons enterprize and sails for France, May, 1542. At the harbour of St. John (8th June) meets Roberval; Cartier leaves him in the night and returns to France.

1542. JEAN FRANÇOIS DE LA ROQUE, Sieur de ROBERVAL, appointed Lord of Norumbega, Viceroy and Lieutenant-General in Canada, Hochelaga, Saguenay, Newfoundland, Belle Isle, Carpunt, Labrador, the Great Bay and Baccalao; sails from La Rochelle 16th April, 1542, to meet Cartier, his Captain-General. Deserted by the latter at St. John; Roberval proceeds to Cape Rouge and begins a colony, which he calls France Roy. The colony goes to pieces under Roberval's mismanagement, and the King of France sends Cartier to fetch the Governor home in 1543.

1542. RODRIGUEZ CABRILLO (Portuguese) reaches California north of the modern Monterey, $36^{\circ} 36' \text{ N. Lat.}$; dies; his pilot, Bartolomeos Ferreto, takes the expedition on to $43^{\circ} \text{ N. Lat.}$ above Cape Orford.

NOTE.—The claims of Spain to America were founded on the double title of the discoveries of Columbus, and the gift by the Papal Bull of Alexander VI, in 1494; those of England on the discoveries by the Cabots; those of France on the early frequentation of the Newfoundland codbanks by Breton and Basque fishermen, and the voyages of Verrazano and Cartier. Most of the early voyages to America were made in search of China, India, or the Spice Islands, and for many years after its discovery America was supposed to be part of Asia. In 1542, Francis I. of France, writes of "the Lands of Canada and Hochelaga, which form the extremity of Asia towards the West."

(C.) FURTHER DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS IN AMERICA AND SETTLEMENTS ON THE NORTHERN CONTINENT. (1550 to 1748.)

1550. Guido de la Bazaress (Span.) makes an abortive attempt to form a settlement in Florida.
1551. Angel de la Villafañe (Span.) the like.
1562. Jean Ribaut (a French Huguenot, supported by Admiral Coligny) builds Charlesfort on the River Chanonceau, probably the Modern Archers' Creek, Florida, but is obliged to abandon the attempt to form a colony.
1564. René de la Laudonniere (French Huguenot) builds Fort Caroline on S. John's River (R. of May), Florida. Is on the point of abandoning it with the help of Sir John Hawkins; when
1565. Jean Ribaut arrives with supplies and reinforcements.
1565. Pedro Menendez (Span.) founds St. Augustine, the oldest town in the United States, a few miles south of Fort Caroline; massacres the French Huguenots, and takes Fort Caroline, which he calls Fort Mateo.
1567. Dominic de Gourgues (French), a private adventurer, avenges the massacre, takes Fort Mateo, and retires.

NOTE.—The incidents of the formation of this Huguenot colony, and the coldblooded atrocity which put an end to it, directed the attention of the English, and notably, that of Sir Walter Raleigh, to America as a field of colonization.

1567. Sir John Hawkins, previously engaged for some years in the African-American Slave Trade, in this year was badly beaten by the Spaniards, near San Juan de Ulloa. Sir Francis Drake was with him.

NOTE.—The many voyages of Hawkins, Drake, Grenville, Oxenham, and Cavendish, were principally directed against the Spaniards, and not towards colonization or exploration; but all mention of them cannot be omitted.

1576. Martin Frobisher, with two ships each of 25 tons, in search of North West passage, explores coast of Greenland; discovers the strait leading to Hudson's Bay, and North as far as $63^{\circ} 45' N.$ Lat.
1577. Frobisher sails thither again in search of gold; and in the following year, 1578, makes an abortive attempt to found a settlement.
1577. Sir Francis Drake passes through Straits of Magellan; plunders the Spanish towns in Chili and Peru; sails north to $48^{\circ} N.$ Lat. in search of a passage to the Atlantic; returns to San Francisco; thence to the Moluccas, round the Cape of Good Hope, reaching England in 1579. This is the second recorded circumnavigation of the world.

1579. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, with his half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, under a patent from Queen Elizabeth, attempts to form a settlement in Newfoundland; returns unsuccessful.

1583. Sir Humphrey Gilbert repeats his attempt to colonize Newfoundland. His largest ship is wrecked, and he, on his homeward voyage, is lost in "The Squirrel," a boat of only ten tons. "The Hind," somewhat larger, reaches England.

1584. Sir Walter Raleigh attempts to colonize Roanoke, in the country which he names Virginia, probably accompanying the expedition himself. Fails.

1585. Sir Richard Grenville, in command of an expedition furnished by Raleigh, renews the Virginia attempt and leaves the colonists under Governor Lane. They are taken home by Drake.

1585 to 1587. John Davis in search of a North-West passage, makes three voyages, and sails up Baffin's Bay as far as $72^{\circ} 12'$ N. Lat.

1586. Thomas Cavendish passes through Straits of Magellan, harries the Spaniards on coasts of Chili and Peru, crosses Pacific, and returns to England round Cape of Good Hope. The third circumnavigation of the globe.

1587. Raleigh makes a fresh attempt to colonize Virginia under Governor White, who goes to England for supplies and reinforcements. No trace of the colony found on his return, or ever after.

1593. Juan de Fuca (a Cephalonian employed by Spain), reaches west coast as far north as the Straits of his name, between the continent and Vancouver's Island.

1596. (*Raleigh's first voyage to Guiana, "El Dorado," S. America.*)

1598. Marquis de la Roche, appointed by Henry IV. of France, Lieut.-General of Canada, Hochelaga, Newfoundland and adjacent countries with sovereign power; lands a colony of convicts on Sable Island, Nova Scotia. Eleven survivors brought back to France by Chefdhôtel in 1603.

1602. Bartholomew Gosnold (English) to Massachusetts Bay, north of Nahant, south to Cape Cod (so named by him), lands there. Proceeds past Nantucket to Elizabeth Island, where he builds storehouse and fort.

1603. Martin Pring, for Raleigh, to coast of Maine, southward to Martha's Vineyard. Pring re-surveyed the coast of Maine in 1606.

1603. Pontgravé and Chauvin commence a settlement at Tadoussac at the mouth of the Saguenay, a tributary of the St. Lawrence.

1604. Pierre du Guast, Sieur de Monts (a French Calvinist), Governor of Acadie with viceregal powers, with Champlain and Poutrincourt, explores the Bay of

Fundy, discovers Annapolis Harbour, St. Mary's Bay, River St. Croix, and commences a settlement at the mouth of the latter. Grants Port Royal to Poutrincourt, but shifts his own settlement thither. Meanwhile Champlain has explored the coasts of Maine and Massachusetts to the south of Cape Cod to Nansett Harbour, whence he returns to St. Croix. In 1607 de Monts' monopoly revoked, and the colony temporarily abandoned.

1605. George Waymouth, for Earl of Southampton and Lord Arundel of Wardour, explores coast from Cape Cod, and enters the Penobscot. Kidnaps five natives, three of whom he gives to Sir Ferdinand Gorges, Governor of Plymouth, who, with Sir John Popham, Lord Chief Justice of England, applies to James I. for leave to deduce a colony into Virginia; in response to which, in
1606. James I. of England grants charters to colonize North America.
To a London company between 34° and 38° N. Lat.
" Plymouth " " 41° and 45° N. Lat.
Intermediate region to the two companies in common, on certain conditions.
1607. James Town, Virginia, on the James River (Powhatan), Chesapeake Bay founded by Lord de la Warr.
1608. Quebec founded by Champlain for a company of merchants of Dieppe and St. Malo.
1609. Henry Hudson, an Englishman, sent by the Dutch East India Company to explore, visits the river which now bears his name.
1610. Poutrincourt obtains a confirmation of the grant made to him by de Monts, of Port Royal, and sails thither, evading the company of Jesuits, who, however are sent after him the next year.
1613. De Sussaye founds St. Sauveur, on Mount Desert Isle, Maine; Samuel Argal (English) takes it and deports the French colonists.
1614. The Dutch build a fort on Manhattan Island (now New York), and commence settlements in New Jersey.
1614. Captain Smith (English) explores the coast from the Penobscot to Cape Cod, and names the country New England.
1615. The Dutch build Fort Orange near the site of Albany, on the Hudson.
1616. Jacob Lemaire (Dutch) discovers the Straits named after him; names Statenland and Cape Horn (Hoorn, after his native town), doubles the Cape and sails to Java. He dies on the voyage. Schouten succeeds him in command.
1617. (*Raleigh's second voyage to Guiana, South America.*)

1620. New Plymouth, on Massachusetts's Bay, founded by the Pilgrim Fathers, English Nonconformists, who had been sheltering from persecution in Leyden. Their ship, "The Mayflower," landed exactly 100 persons, of whom 51, including Governor Carver, died in little more than three months. Governor Bradford succeeded Carver. This was the first of the New England settlements.

1620. Champlain builds the castle of S. Louis at Quebec.

1622. Sir William Alexander, under Royal Patent, makes a futile attempt to found a Scotch colony between the St. Croix and the St. Lawrence, on lands included in the French grants to De Monts and Poutrincourt.

1627. Gustavus Adolphus authorizes Swedish colonies in North America, but no effective settlement made till 1638.

1628. Massachusetts founded as a Puritan colony, under a grant to Sir Henry Roswell, John Endicott, and others.

1628. Quebec and Canada surrendered by Champlain to English Fleet under the Brothers Kirk; restored to France four years later by treaty.

1629. New Hampshire settled under a patent granted to John Mason.

1630. Connecticut granted to Earl of Warwick, and afterwards to Lords Saye and Seal, and Brooke, John Hampden and others.

1633. Maryland, separated from Virginia, formed into a Roman Catholic Colony, with liberty of conscience for all creeds, by Lord Baltimore.

1633. The younger Winthrop builds a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut River.

1636. A Government organised for Connecticut.

1636. Roger Williams, expelled from Massachusetts for claiming liberty of conscience, founds Providence, the capital of Rhode Island.

1638. John Davenport founds Newhaven, Connecticut. The Swedes build Fort Christina on the Delaware and settle New Sweden.

1642. Ville Marie de Montreal (Montreal), founded by the French under Maisonneuve.

1654. The Swedes at Fort Christina capture the Dutch fort Casimir, on the Delaware.

1655. The Dutch under Peter Stuyvesant recapture Fort Casimir; take Fort Christina, and annex New Sweden to the New Netherlands.

1663. Carolina (including present North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia) founded. Lord Clarendon, the Duke of Albemarle, Lord Craven, Ashley Cooper, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury, and others, its proprietors. Constitution drawn up by John Locke.

1664. New Amsterdam, and the New Netherlands annexed by the English, and given by Charles II. to his brother the Duke of York and Albany, afterwards James II., with all the country from the Penobscot to the Delaware. New Amsterdam becomes New York, and Orange becomes Albany.
1669. South Carolina, separated from North Carolina, and an independent government established.
1673. Marquette and Joliet (French), discover the Upper Mississippi.
1673. July 30. New York surrendered to the Dutch. Restored to England 9th February, 1674, by treaty.
1680. William Penn obtains a grant of Pennsylvania from the King, and afterwards purchases Newcastle and Delaware of the Duke of York.
1682. Pennsylvania settled, and Philadelphia founded, on land purchased from the Swedes in 1683.
1682. La Salle discovers the Mississippi from the North-east, and follows it to its mouth. Claims the territory for France, and names it Louisiana.
1702. Delaware finally separated from Pennsylvania.
1713. The Treaty of Utrecht, by which England obtains the fisheries, Hudson's Bay and its borders, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia or Acadia.
- 1724 to 1731. Vermont settled by the French.
1728. Behring's Straits discovered.
- 1732 to 1737. Georgia settled by General Oglethorpe.
1748. The Treaty of Aix la Chapelle, by which Cape Breton was restored to France.
1748. Ohio Colony (English) founded.

**(D.) ANGLO-FRENCH WARS IN AMERICA TO THE TREATY OF
PARIS, 1763.**

- 1679. La Salle builds a temporary fort at Niagara.
- 1687. Major Mc Gregor trading on Lake Huron, sent back by the French. Denonville, Governor of Canada, rebuilds the ruined fort at Niagara which Dongan, Governor of New York, compels him to demolish in the following year.
- 1689. Massacre of French by Iroquois at Montreal.
- 1690. Massacre of English by French and Cagimunga Indians at Schenectady. Raids on New Hampshire, Maine and Massachusetts by French and Indians. The English under Sir William Phipps take Port Royal and reduce Acadia. English expeditions against Montreal and Quebec. Continual raids and counter-raids till 1697, when peace concluded by the treaty of Ryswick.
- 1702. France and England again at war till the treaty of Utrecht, 1713.
- 1716. Spotswood, Governor of Virginia, in vain urges erection of English forts in the valley of the Ohio.
- 1721. French rebuild Fort Niagara, which they greatly strengthen in 1726.
- 1725. Governor Burnet annoys the French by establishing a trading station at Oswego, on Lake Ontario.
- 1731. French erect Fort Frederick (Crown Point), on Lake Champlain.
- 1744. War with France, concluded by treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748. Commission to settle boundaries between French and English colonies in America, 1750.
- 1749. English at Sandusky on Lake Erie. Picquet (French Jesuit) at Swegage, now Ogdensburg.
- 1753. French encroach on English territory, erect Forts Presqu'isle, Le Bœuf and Venango, the latter an Indian village and English trading station.
- 1753. December. Dinwiddie, Governor of Virginia, sends George Washington, then a Major in the Virginia Militia to Venango and Fort Le Bœuf to protest. Washington sent back without satisfaction. Escapes assassination by a French Indian, and drowning in the Alleghany, by the upsetting of his raft.
- 1754. Captain Trent sent to build fort at confluence of the Mononghela and Alleghany Rivers. French drive him away and erect Fort Duquesne. Washington attacks and defeats Jumonville, is in turn attacked and retires across the Alleghanies.
- 1755. War not yet declared. Negotiations still in progress when Admiral Boscawen captures a French ship part of Dieskau's expedition. Orders given to harass

French commerce on pretext of their encroachments in America. English plan of four simultaneous attacks on Acadia (Nova Scotia), Fort Crown Point (Lake Champlain), Fort Niagara (Lake Ontario) and Fort Duquesne (Pittsburg).

Carried out thus:—

(a.) Braddock advances from Fort Cumberland against Fort Duquesne. 8th July, routed by French and Indians under Beaujeu, a few miles from Fort Duquesne. Braddock killed. George Washington, Gage (who held a command for the English in the War of Independence) and Gates (to whom Burgoyne surrendered at Saratoga) took part in this battle; the two latter wounded. Dunbar, with rear division, bolts and leaves English border settlements to their fate; they suffer severely from Indian raids.

(b.) Sir William Johnson advances against Crown Point, builds Fort Edward (Fort Lyman) on the Hudson, and Fort William Henry at head of Lake George. Dieskau advances from Crown Point. Battle of Lake George. Dieskau defeated, wounded and made prisoner. Johnson did not pursue his advantage.

(c.) Shirley, with about 1,500 men, leaves Albany and Schenectady to attack Niagara; reaches Oswego, but there want of provisions, difficulty of transport, discontent of officers and men and fear of being cut off by troops from Fort Frontenac, compels postponement of enterprise.

(d.) Winslow, with irregular troops, takes Forts Beausejour, Gaspereau, and St. John in Acadia.

1756. War declared between France and England, 9th June. Montcalm, crossing the Lake from Frontenac, destroys Oswego. Mereer, English commander, killed; Shirley, and Peperell, with about 1,600 men, capitulate; 120 cannons, six vessels of war, 300 boats, ammunition, provisions, and three chests of money taken by the French. The fort razed. Webb, in command of the supports, flies to Albany.

1757. Montcalm besieges and takes Fort William Henry, defended by Colonel Munro. Webb, at Fort Edward, refuses succour and advises surrender. Munro, after desperate defence, surrenders with honours of war. Treacherous massacre of English by French-Indian allies, which Montcalm endeavours to prevent.

1758. Pitt (afterwards Earl of Chatham), now Prime Minister, fits out proper expedition under Sir Jeffrey (afterwards Lord Amherst).

(a.) Amherst takes Louisburg in Cape Breton Island. Wolfe, the captor of Quebec, takes an active part in the attack.

(b.) General Forbes advances against Fort Duquesne, which, on his approach, is evacuated and blown up by the French.

(c.) Bradstreet from Oswego, crosses Ontario and destroys Fort Frontenac (26th Aug.) and French vessels; Bradstreet leaves 1,000 men at Fort Stanwix, then being erected.

(d.) Abercrombie attacks Montcalm at Ticonderoga with 16,000 men; Lord Howe killed in preliminary skirmish. Abercrombie defeated.

1759. General Prideaux invests Fort Niagara; is killed by the bursting of one of his own guns. Johnson succeeds him in command; attacks and takes the Fort. French burn Presqu'isle, Le Bois and Venango, and retreat to Detroit.

(b.) Amherst takes Ticonderoga and Crown Point; French retreat to Richelieu River. Amherst builds Fort George on site of entrenchments of Fort William Henry.

(c.) Wolfe besieges and takes Quebec, 13th Sept., 1759; Montcalm and Wolfe both killed.

1760. Amherst descends the St. Lawrence from Oswego, Col. Haviland descends Lake Champlain and River Richelieu (Sorel), Murray ascends the St. Lawrence from Quebec; Montreal surrendered by Vandreuil, and Canada with it, 8th Sept., 1760.

1763. Treaty of Paris. Canada ceded to England; leaving France only a right of fishing and drying fish on certain coasts of Cape Breton, and two small islands. Louisiana ceded to Spain, afterwards restored to France, and sold by Napoleon in 1803 to U.S.A., and made a State in 1812.

(E.) TREATY OF PARIS.

The Definitive Treaty of Peace and Friendship between his Britannick Majesty, the Most Christian King, and the King of Spain. Concluded at Paris, the 10th day of February, 1763. To which the King of Portugal acceded on the same day.

In the Name of the Most Holy and Undivided Trinity, Father, Son, and Holy Ghost.
So be it.

Be it known to all those to whom it shall, or may, in any manner, belong.

It has pleased the Most High to diffuse the spirit of union and concord among the Princes, whose divisions had spread troubles in the four parts of the world, and to inspire them with the inclination to cause the comforts of peace to succeed to the misfortunes of a long and bloody war, which having arisen between England and France, during the reign of the most serene and most potent Prince, George the Second, by the grace of God, King of Great-Britain, of glorious memory, continued under the reign of the most serene and most potent Prince, George the Third, his successor, and, in its progress, communicated itself to Spain and Portugal: Consequently, the most serene and most potent Prince, George the Third, by the grace of God, King of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, Duke of Brunswick and Lauenbourg, Arch-Treasurer, and Elector, of the Holy Roman Empire; the most serene and most potent Prince, Lewis the Fifteenth, by the grace of God, Most Christian King; and the most serene and most potent Prince, Charles the Third, by the grace of God, King of Spain and of the Indies, after having laid the foundations of peace in the Preliminaries, signed at Fontainebleau the third of November last; and the most serene and most potent Prince, Don Joseph the First, by the grace of God, King of Portugal and of the Algarves, after having acceded thereto, determined to compleat, without delay, this great and important work. For this purpose, the high contracting parties have named and appointed their respective Ambassadors Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary, viz.: his Sacred Majesty the King of Great Britain, the most illustrious and most excellent Lord, John Duke and Earl of Bedford, Marquess of Tavistock, &c. his Minister of State, Lieutenant General of his Armies, Keeper of his Privy Seal, Knight of the most Noble Order of the Garter, and his Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to his most Christian Majesty; his Sacred Majesty the most Christian King, the most illustrious and most excellent Lord, Casar Gabriel de Choiseul, Duke of Praslin, Peer of France, Knight of his Orders, Lieutenant General of his Armies and of the province of Brittany, Counsellor in all his Councils, and Minister and Secretary of State, and of his Commands and Finances; his Sacred Majesty the Catholic King, the most illustrious and most excellent Lord, Don Jerome Grimaldi, Marquis de Grimaldi, Knight of the most Christian King's Orders, Gentleman of his Catholick Majesty's Bed-Chamber in Employment, and his Ambassador Extraordinary to his most Christian Majesty; his Sacred Majesty

the most Faithful King, the most illustrious and most excellent Lord, Martin de Mello and Castro, Knight Professed of the order of Christ, of his most Faithful Majesty's council, and his Ambassador, and Minister Plenipotentiary, to his most Christian Majesty.

Who, after having duly communicated to each other their full powers, in good form, copies whereof are transcribed at the end of the present treaty of peace, have agreed upon the articles, the tenor of which is as follows:—

Article I. There shall be a Christian, universal, and perpetual peace, as well by sea as by land, and a sincere and constant friendship shall be re-established between their Britanick, most Christian, Catholick, and most Faithful Majesties, and between their heirs and successors, kingdoms, dominions, provinces, countries, subjects, and vassals, of what quality or condition soever they be, without exception of places or of persons: so that the high contracting parties shall give the greatest attention to maintain between themselves, and their said dominions and subjects, this reciprocal friendship and correspondence, without permitting, on either side, any kind of hostilities, by sea or by land, to be committed from henceforth, for any cause, or under any pretence whatsoever, and every thing shall be carefully avoided, which might, hereafter, prejudice the union happily re-established, applying themselves, on the contrary, on any occasion, to procure for each other whatever may contribute to their mutual glory, interests, and advantages, without giving any assistance or protection, directly or indirectly, to those who would cause any prejudice to either of the high contracting parties; there shall be a general oblivion of every thing that may have been done or committed before, or since the commencement of the war, which is just ended.

II. The treaties of Westphalia of 1648; those of Madrid between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain of 1667, and 1670; the treaties of peace of Nimeguen of 1678, and 1679; of Ryswyck of 1697; those of peace and of commerce of Utrecht of 1713; that of Baden of 1714; the treaty of the triple alliance of the Hague of 1717; that of the quadruple alliance of London of 1718; the treaty of peace of Vienna of 1738; the definitive treaty of Aix la Chapelle of 1748; and that of Madrid, between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, of 1750; as well as the treaties between the crowns of Spain and Portugal, of the 13th of February, 1668; of the 6th of February, 1715; and of the 12th of February, 1761; and that of the 11th of April, 1713, between France and Portugal, with the guaranties of Great-Britain; serve as a basis and foundation to the peace, and to the present treaty: and for this purpose, they are all renewed and confirmed in the best form, as well as all the general, which subsisted between the high contracting parties before the war, as if they were inserted here word for word, so that they are to be exactly observed, for the future, in their whole tenor, and religiously executed on all sides, in all their points, which shall not be derogated from by the present treaty, notwithstanding all that may have been stipulated to the contrary by any of the high contracting parties: and all the said parties declare, that they will not suffer any privilege, favour, or indulgence to subsist, contrary to the treaties above confirmed, except what shall have been agreed and stipulated by the present treaty.

III. All the prisoners made, on all sides, as well by land as by sea, and the hostages carried away, or given during the war, and to this day, shall be restored, without ransom, six weeks, at latest, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratification of the present treaty, each crown respectively paying the advances, which shall have been made for the subsistence and maintenance of their prisoners, by the Sovereign of the country where they shall have been detained, according to the attested receipts and estimates, and other authentic vouchers, which shall be furnished on one side and the other. And securities shall be reciprocally given for the payment of the debts which the prisoners shall have contracted in the countries, where they have been detained, until their entire liberty. And all the ships of war and merchant vessels, which shall have been taken since the expiration of the terms agreed upon for the cessation of hostilities by sea, shall likewise be restored bonâ fide, with all their crews and cargoes: and the execution of this article shall be proceeded upon immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty.

IV. His most Christian Majesty renounces all pretensions, which he has heretofore formed, or might have formed, to Nova Scotia, or Acadia, in all its parts, and guaranties the whole of it, and with all its dependencies, to the King of Great Britain: Moreover, his most Christian Majesty cedes, and guaranties to his said Britannick Majesty, in full right, Canada, with all its dependencies, as well as the Island of Cape Breton, and all the other Islands and Coasts, in the gulph and river of St. Laurence, and in general, every thing that depends on the said Countries, Lands, Islands, and Coasts, with the sovereignty, property, possession, and all rights acquired by treaty, or otherwise, which the most Christian King, and the crown of France, have had, till now, over the said Countries, Islands, Lands, Places, Coasts, and their inhabitants, so that the most Christian King cedes and makes over the whole to the said King, and to the crown of Great Britain, and that in the most ample manner and form, without restriction, and without any liberty to depart from the said cession and guaranty, under any pretence, or to disturb Great Britain in the possessions above-mentioned. His Britannick Majesty, on his side, agrees to grant the liberty of the Catholick religion to the inhabitants of Canada: He will, in consequence, give the most precise and most effectual orders, that his new Roman Catholick subjects may profess the worship of their religion, according to the rites of the Romish Church, as far as the laws of Great Britain permit. His Britannick Majesty further agrees, that the French inhabitants, or others who had been subjects of the most Christian King in Canada, may retire, with all safety and freedom, wherever they shall think proper, and may sell their estates, provided it be to the subjects of his Britannick Majesty, and bring away their effects, as well as their persons, without being restrained in their emigration, under any pretence whatsoever, except that of debts, or of criminal prosecutions: The term, limited for this emigration, shall be fixed to the space of eighteen months, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratification of the present treaty.

V. The subjects of France shall have the liberty of fishing and drying, on a part of the coasts of the island of Newfoundland, such as it is specified in the XIIIth article of the

treaty of Utrecht;* which article is renewed and confirmed by the present treaty, (except what relates to the Island of Cape Breton, as well as to the other Islands and Coasts, in the mouth and in the gulph of St. Laurence;) And his Britannick Majesty consents to leave to the subjects of the most Christian King, the liberty of fishing in the gulph St. Laurence, on condition that the subjects of France do not exercise the said fishery, but at the distance of three leagues from all the coasts belonging to Great Britain, as well those of the continent, as those of the Islands situated in the said gulph St. Laurence. And as to what relates to the fishery on the coasts of the Island of Cape Breton, out of the said gulph, the subjects of the most Christian King shall not be permitted to exercise the said fishery, but at the distance of fifteen leagues from the coasts of the Island of Cape Breton; and the fishery on the coasts of Nova Scotia or Acadia, and every where else out of the said Gulph shall remain on the foot of former treaties.

VI. The King of Great Britain cedes the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, in full right, to his most Christian Majesty, to serve as a shelter to the French fishermen; and his said most Christian Majesty engages not to fortify the said islands; to erect no buildings upon them, but merely for the convenience of the fishery; and to keep upon them a guard of fifty men only for the police.

VII. In order to re-establish peace on solid and durable foundations, and to remove for ever all subject of dispute with regard to the limits of the British and French territories on the continent of America; it is agreed, that, for the future, the confines between the dominions of his Britannick Majesty, and those of his most Christian Majesty, in that part of the world, shall be fixed irrevocably by a line drawn along the middle of the River Mississippi, from its source, to the River Iberville, and from thence, by a line drawn along the middle of this River, and the Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain, to the sea; and for this purpose, the most Christian King cedes in full right, and guaranties to his Britannick Majesty, the River and Port of the Mobile, and every thing which he possesses, or ought to possess, on the left side of the River Mississippi, except the town of New

Article XIII. of the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713, is as follows:—[“]XIII. The Island called Newfoundland, with the adjacent islands, shall from this time forward, belong of right wholly to Britain, and to that end the town and fortress of Placentia, and whatever other places in the said island are in the possession of the French, shall be yielded and given up, within seven months from the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, or sooner, if possible, by the most Christian King, to those who have a commission from the Queen of Great Britain, for that purpose. Nor shall the most Christian King, his heirs and successors, or any of their subjects, at any time hereafter, lay claim to any right to the said island or islands, or to any part of it, or them. Moreover it shall not be lawful for the subjects of France to fortify any place in the said Island of Newfoundland, or to erect any buildings there, besides stages made of boards, and huts necessary and usual for drying of fish; or to resort to the said Island, beyond the time necessary for fishing, and drying of fish. But it shall be allowed to the subjects of France, to catch fish, and to dry them on land, in that part only, and in no other besides that, of the said island of Newfoundland, which stretches from the place called Cape Bonavista, to the northern point of the said island, and from thence running down by the western side, reaches as far as the place called Point Riche. But the island called Cape Breton, as also all others, both in the mouth of the river of St. Lawrence, and in the gulph of the same name, shall hereafter belong of right to the French, and the most Christian King shall have all manner of liberty to fortify any place, or places there.”

Orleans, and the island in which it is situated, which shall remain to France; provided that the navigation of the River Mississippi, shall be equally free, as well to the subjects of Great Britain, as to those of France, in its whole breadth and length, from its source to the sea, and expressly that part, which is between the said island of New Orleans, and the right bank of that River, as well as the passage both in and out of its mouth: It is further stipulated, that the vessels belonging to the subjects of either nation, shall not be stopped, visited, or subjected to the payment of any duty whatsoever. The stipulations, inserted in the IVth article, in favour of the inhabitants of Canada, shall also take place, with regard to the inhabitants of the countries ceded by this article.

VIII. The King of Great Britain shall restore to France the islands of Guadeloupe, of Mariegalante, of Desirade, of Martinico, and of Bellisle; and the fortresses of these islands shall be restored in the same condition they were in, when they were conquered by the British arms; provided that his Britannick Majesty's subjects, who shall have settled in the said islands, or those who shall have any commercial affairs to settle there, or in the other places restored to France by the present treaty, shall have liberty to sell their lands and their estates, to settle their affairs, to recover their debts, and to bring away their effects, as well as their persons, on board vessels, which they shall be permitted to send to the said islands, and other places restored as above, and which shall serve for this use only, without being restrained, on account of their religion, or under any other pretence whatsoever, except that of debts, or of criminal prosecutions: and for this purpose, the term of eighteen months is allowed to his Britannick Majesty's subjects, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty; but, as the liberty, granted to his Britannick Majesty's subjects, to bring away their persons and their effects, in vessels of their nation, may be liable to abuses, if precautions were not taken to prevent them; it has been expressly agreed between his Britannick Majesty and his most Christian Majesty, that the number of English vessels, which shall have leave to go to the said islands and places restored to France, shall be limited, as well as the number of tons of each one; that they shall go in ballast; shall set sail at a fixed time; and shall make one voyage only, all the effects, belonging to the English, being to be embarked at the same time. It has been further agreed, that his most Christian Majesty shall cause the necessary passports to be given to the said vessels; that, for the greater security, it shall be allowed to place two French Clerks, or Guards, in each of the said vessels, which shall be visited in the landing places, and ports of the said islands, and places, restored to France, and that the merchandise, which shall be found therein, shall be confiscated.

IX. The most Christian King cedes and guarantees to his Britannick Majesty, in full right, the islands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, with the same stipulations in favour of the inhabitants of this Colony, inserted in the IVth article for those of Canada: And the partition of the islands called neutral, is agreed and fixed, so that those of St. Vincent, Dominieo, and Tobago, shall remain in full right to Great Britain, and that of St. Lucia

shall be delivered to France, to enjoy the same likewise in full right: and the high contracting parties guaranty the partition so stipulated.

X. His Britannick Majesty shall restore to France the island of Gorée in the condition it was in when conquered; and his most Christian Majesty cedes in full right, and guarantees to the King of Great Britain the River Senegal, with the forts and factories of St. Lewis, Podor, and Galam, and with all the rights and dependencies of the said River Senegal.

XI. In the East Indies, Great Britain shall restore to France, in the condition they are now in, the different factories, which that Crown possessed, as well as on the coast of Coromandel, and Orixá, as on that of Malabar, as also in Bengal, at the beginning of the year 1749. And his most Christian Majesty renounces all pretension to the acquisitions which he has made on the coast of Coromandel and Orixá, since the said beginning of the year 1749. His most Christian Majesty shall restore, on his side, all that he may [have] conquered from Great Britain, in the East Indies, during the present war; and will expressly cause Nattal and Tapanouly, in the island of Sumatra, to be restored; he engages further, not to erect fortifications, or to keep troops in any part of the dominions of the Subah of Bengal. And in order to preserve future peace on the Coast of Coromandel and Orixá, the English and French shall acknowledge Mahomet Ally Khan for lawful Nabob of the Carnatic, and Saibat Jing for lawful Subah of the Decan; and both parties shall renounce all demands and pretensions of satisfaction, with which they might charge each other, or their Indian allies, for the depredations, or pillage, committed, on the one side, or on the other, during the war.

XII. The Island of Minorca shall be restored to his Britannick Majesty, as well as Fort St. Philip, in the same condition they were in, when conquered by the arms of the most Christian King; and with the artillery which was there, when the said Island, and the said fort were taken.

XIII. The town and port of Dunkirk shall be put into the state fixed by the last treaty of Aix la Chapelle, and by former treaties. The Cunette shall be destroyed immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, as well as the forts and batteries which defend the entrance on the side of the sea; and provision shall be made, at the same time, for the wholesomeness of the air, and for the health of the inhabitants, by some other means, to the satisfaction of the King of Great Britain.

XIV. France shall restore all the countries belonging to the Electorate of Hanover, to the Landgrave of Hesse, to the Duke of Brunswick, and to the Count of La Lippe Buckebourg, which are, or shall be occupied by his most Christian Majesty's arms; the fortresses of these different countries shall be restored in the same condition they were in, when conquered by the French Arms; and the pieces of artillery, which shall have been carried elsewhere, shall be replaced by the same number, of the same bore, weight, and metal.

XV. In case the stipulations, contained in the XIIIth article of the preliminaries, should not be compleated at the time of the signature of the present treaty, as well with regard to the evaeuations to be made by the armies of France of the fortresses of Cleves, Wezel, Guelders, and of all the countries belonging to the King of Prussia, as with regard to the evacuations to be made by the British and French armies of the countries which they occupy in Westphalia, Lower Saxony, on the Lower Rhine, the Upper Rhine, and in all the Empire; and to the retreat of the troops into the dominions of the respective Sovereigns: their Britannick, and most Christian Majesties promise to proceed, *bond jide*, with all the dispatch the case will permit of, to the said evacuations, the entire completion whereof they stipulate before the 15th of March next, or sooner if it can be done; and their Britannick and most Christian Majesties further engage, and promise to each other, not to furnish any succours, of any kind, to their respective allies, who shall continue engaged in the war in Germany.

XVI. The decision of the prizes made, in time of peace, by the subjects of Great Britain, on the Spaniards, shall be referred to the Courts of Justice of the Admiralty of Great Britain, conformably to the rules established among all nations, so that the validity of the said prizes, between the British and Spanish nations, shall be decided and judged, according to the law of nations, and according to treaties, in the Courts of Justice of the nation, who shall have made the capture.

XVII. His Britannick Majesty shall cause to be demolished all the fortifications which his subjects shall have erected in the Bay of Honduras, and other places of the territory of Spain in that part of the world, four months after the ratification of the present treaty: and his Catholick Majesty shall not permit his Britannick Majesty's subjects, or their workmen, to be disturbed, or molested, under any pretence whatsoever, in the said places, in their occupation of cutting, loading, and carrying away Logwood; and for this purpose they may build without hindrance, and occupy, without interruption, the houses and magazines, necessary for them, for their families, and for their effects: and his Catholick Majesty assures to them, by this article, the full enjoyment of those advantages, and powers, on the Spanish coasts and territories, as above stipulated, immediately after the ratification of the present treaty.

XVIII. His Catholick Majesty desists, as well for himself, as for his successors, from all pretension, which he may have formed, in favour of the Guipuseoans, and other his subjects, to the right of fishing in the neighbourhood of the Island of Newfoundland.

XIX. The King of Great Britain shall restore to Spain all the territory which he has conquered in the island of Cuba, with the fortress of the Havana; and this fortress, as well as all the other fortresses of the said island, shall be restored in the same condition they were in when conquered by his Britannick Majesty's arms: provided, that his Britannick Majesty's subjects, who shall have settled in the said island, restored to Spain by the present treaty, or those who shall have any commercial affairs to settle there, shall have liberty to

sell their lands, and their estates, to settle their affairs, to recover their debts, and to bring away their effects, as well as their persons, on board vessels which they shall be permitted to send to the said island restored as above, and which shall serve for that use only, without being restrained on account of their religion, or under any other pretence whatsoever, except that of debts, or of criminal prosecutions: And for this purpose, the term of eighteen months is allowed to his Britannick Majesty's subjects, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty: but as the liberty, granted to his Britannick Majesty's subjects, to bring away their persons, and their effects, in vessels of their nation, may be liable to abuses, if precautions were not taken to prevent them; it has been expressly agreed, between his Britannick Majesty and his Catholick Majesty, that the number of English vessels, which shall have leave to go to the said island restored to Spain, shall be limited, as well as the number of tons of each one; that they shall go in ballast; shall set sail at a fixed time; and shall make one voyage only; all the effects belonging to the English being to be embarked at the same time: it has been further agreed, that his Catholick Majesty shall cause the necessary passports to be given to the said vessels; that, for the greater security, it shall be allowed to place two Spanish clerks, or guards, in each of the said vessels, which shall be visited in the landing places, and ports of the said island restored to Spain, and that the merchandize, which shall be found therein, shall be confiscated.

XX. In consequence of the restitution stipulated in the preceding article, his Catholick Majesty cedes and guaranties, in full right, to his Britannick Majesty, Florida, with Fort St. Augustin, and the Bay of Pensacola, as well as all that Spain possesses on the continent of North America, to the East, or to the South-East of the river Mississippi. And, in general, every thing that depends on the said countries and lands, with the sovereignty, property, possession, and all rights, acquired by treaties or otherwise, which the Catholick King, and the crown of Spain, have had till now, over the said countries, lands, places, and their inhabitants; so that the Catholick King cedes and makes over the whole to the said King, and to the Crown of Great Britain, and that in the most ample manner and form. His Britannick Majesty agrees, on his side, to grant to the inhabitants of the countries above ceded, the liberty of the Catholic religion: he will consequently give the most express and the most effectual orders, that his new Roman Catholic subjects may profess the worship of their religion according to the rights of the Romish church, as far as the laws of Great Britain permit. His Britannick Majesty farther agrees, that the Spanish inhabitants, or others who had been subjects of the Catholick King in the said countries, may retire, with all safety and freedom, wherever they think proper; and may sell their estates, provided it be to his Britannick Majesty's subjects, and bring away their effects, as well as their persons, without being restrained in their emigration, under any pretence whatsoever, except that of debts, or of criminal prosecutions: the term, limited for this emigration, being fixed to the space of eighteen months, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty. It is moreover stipulated, that his Catholick

Majesty shall have power to cause all the effects, that may belong to him, to be brought away, whether it be artillery or other things.

XXI. The French and Spanish troops shall evacuate all the territories, lands, towns, places, and castles, of his most faithful Majesty, in Europe, without any reserve, which shall have been conquered by the armies of France and Spain, and shall restore them in the same condition they were in when conquered, with the same artillery, and ammunition, which were found there: And with regard to the Portuguese Colonies in America, Africa, or in the East Indies, if any change shall have happened there, all things shall be restored on the same footing they were in, and conformably to the preceding treaties which subsisted between the Courts of France, Spain, and Portugal, before the present war.

XXII. All the papers, letters, documents, and archives, which were found in the countries, territories, towns, and places, that are restored, and those belonging to the countries ceded, shall be, respectively and *bona fide*, delivered, or furnished at the same time, if possible, that possession is taken, or, at latest, four months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, in whatever places the said papers or documents may be found.

XXIII. All the countries and territories, which may have been conquered, in whatsoever part of the world, by the arms of their Britannick and most Faithful Majesties, as well as by those of their most Christian and Catholick Majesties, which are not included in the present treaty, either under the title of cessions, or under the title of restitutions, shall be restored without difficulty, and without requiring any compensations.

XXIV. As it is necessary to assign a fixed epoch for the restitutions, and the evacuations, to be made by each of the high contracting parties, it is agreed, that the British and French troops shall compleat, before the 15th of March next, all that shall remain to be executed of the XIIth and XIIIth articles of the preliminaries, signed the 3rd day of November last, with regard to the evacuation to be made in the Empire, or elsewhere. The island of Belleisle shall be evacuated six weeks after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done. Guadaloupe, Desirade, Mariegalante, Martinico, and St. Lucia, three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done. Great Britain shall likewise, at the end of three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done, enter into possession of the river and port of the Mobile, and of all that is to form the limits of the territory of Great Britain, on the side of the Mississippi, as they are specified in the VIIth article. The island of Goree shall be evacuated by Great Britain, three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty; and the island of Minorca, by France, at the same epoch, or sooner if it can be done: And according to the conditions of the VIth article, France shall likewise enter into possession of the islands of St. Peter, and of Miquelon, at the end of three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty. The Factories in the East Indies

shall be restored six months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done. The fortress of the Havana, with all that has been conquered in the island of Cuba, shall be restored three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done: And, at the same time, Great Britain shall enter into possession of the country ceded by Spain according to the XXth article. All the places and countries of his most Faithful Majesty, in Europe, shall be restored immediately after the exchange of the ratification of the present treaty: And the Portuguese colonies, which may have been conquered, shall be restored in the space of three months in the West Indies, and of six months in the East Indies, after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done. All the fortresses, the restitution whereof is stipulated above, shall be restored with the artillery and ammunition, which were found there at the time of the conquest. In consequence whereof, the necessary orders shall be sent by each of the high contracting parties, with reciprocal passports for the ships that shall carry them, immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty.

XXV. His Britannick Majesty, as electorate of Brunswick Lunenbourg, as well for himself, as for his heirs and successors, and all the dominions and possessions of his said Majesty in Germany, are included and guarantied by the present treaty of peace.

XXVI. Their sacred Britannick, most Christian, Catholick, and most faithful Majesties, promise to observe, sincerely and *bona fide*, all the articles contained and settled in the present treaty; and they will not suffer the same to be infringed, directly or indirectly, by their respective subjects; and the said high contracting parties, generally and reciprocally, guaranty to each other all the stipulations of the present treaty.

XXVII. The solemn ratifications of the present treaty, expedited in good and due form, shall be exchanged in this City of Paris, between the high contracting parties, in the space of a month, or sooner if possible, to be computed from the day of the signature of the present treaty.

In witness whereof, we the underwritten their Ambassadors Extraordinary, and Ministers Plenipotentiary, have signed with our hand, in their name, and in virtue of our full powers, have signed the present definitive treaty, and have caused the seal of our arms to be put thereto. Done at Paris the tenth day of February, 1763.

Bedford, C. P. S.
(L. S.)

Choiseul, Due de Praslin.
(L. S.)

El Marg. de Grimaldi.
(L. S.)

SEPARATE ARTICLES.

1. Some of the titles made use of by the contracting powers, either in the full powers, and other acts, during the course of the negotiation, or in the preamble of the present treaty, not being generally acknowledged; it has been agreed that no prejudice shall ever result

therefrom to any of the said contracting parties, and that the titles, taken or omitted, on either side, on occasion of the said negotiation, and of the present treaty, shall not be cited, or quoted as a precedent.

II. It has been agreed and determined; that the French language, made use of in all the copies of the present treaty, shall not become an example, which may be alleged, or made a precedent of, or prejudice, in any manner, any of the contracting powers; and that they shall conform themselves, for the future, to what has been observed, and ought to be observed, with regard to, and on the part of powers, who are used, and have a right, to give and to receive copies of like treaties in another language than French; the present treaty having still the same force and effect, as if the aforesaid custom had been therein observed.

III. Though the King of Portugal has not signed the present definitive treaty, their Britannick, most Christian, and Catholick Majesties, acknowledge, nevertheless, that his most Faithful Majesty is formally included therein as a contracting party, and as if he had expressly signed the said treaty: Consequently, their Britannick, most Christian, and Catholick Majesties, respectively and conjointly, promise to his most Faithful Majesty, in the most express and most binding manner, the execution of all and every the clauses, contained in the said treaty, on his act of accession.

The present Separate Articles shall have the same force as if they were inserted in the treaty.

In witness whereof, We the under-written Ambassadors Extraordinary, and Ministers Plenipotentiary of their Britannick, most Christian, and Catholick Majesties, have signed the present Separate Articles, and have caused the seal of our arms to be put thereto.

Done at Paris, the 10th of February, 1763.

Bedford, C. P. S.
(L. S.)

Choiseul, Duc de Praslin.
(L. S.)

El Marg. de Grimaldi.
(L. S.)

[*Here follow the copies of the Full Powers.*]

(Reprinted from "A collection of all the Treaties, &c." See List of Authorities.)

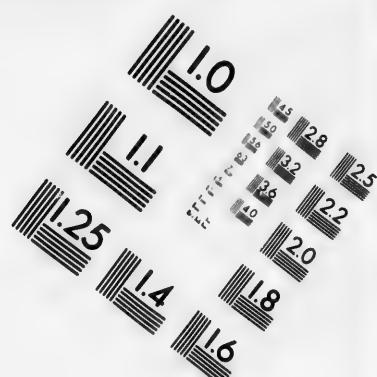
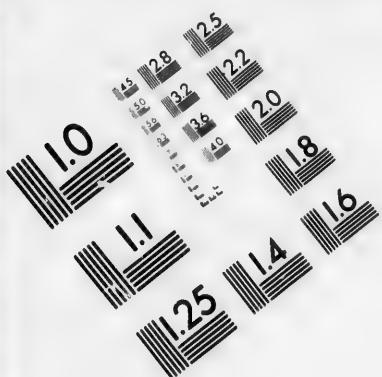
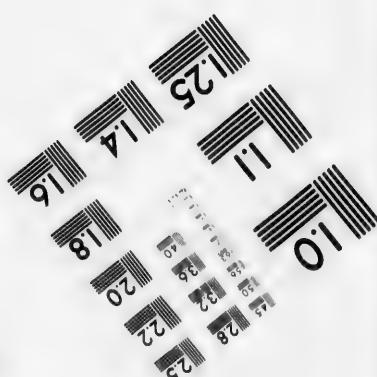
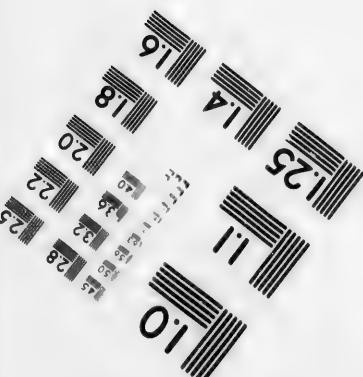
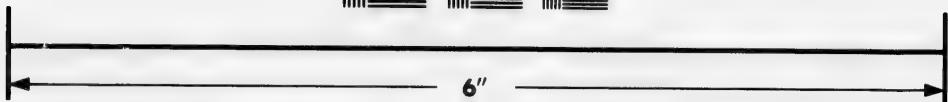
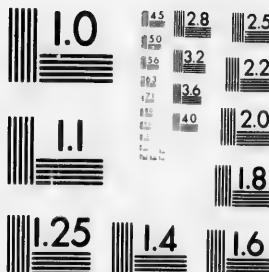


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(F.) POSSESSIONS OF EUROPEAN NATIONS IN AMERICA AFTER THE
TREATY OF PARIS, 1763. (*From Sayers' Map, 1772.*)

On the Continent GREAT BRITAIN had :—

1. The Countries adjoining on the East and West sides of Baffin's and Hudson's Bays.	7. New Jersey.
2. Labrador or New Britain.	8. Pennsylvania.
3. Canada.	9. Maryland.
4. Acadia or Nova Scotia.	10. Virginia.
5. New England.	11. North Carolina.
6. New York.	12. South Carolina.
	13. Georgia.
	14. Florida.

With a right of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras.

Islands GREAT BRITAIN had :—

1. The Islands in Hudson's and Baffin's Bays	}	To the north of the Tropic of Cancer.
2. Newfoundland		
3. Cape Breton		
4. St. Johns		
5. Anticosti		
6. Sable Island		
7. Bermudas		
8. Long Island with a great number of small Islands on the coast of the British Dominions		
9. The Bahama Islands	}	In the West Indies.
10. Jamaica		
11. Virgin Islands		
12. Sombrero		
13. Anguilla		
14. St. Christopher, <i>vulgo</i> St. Kitts		
15. Barbuda		
16. Nevis		
17. Montserrat		
18. Antigua		
19. Dominica	}	The English possess also the Falkland Islands near the straits of Magellan in South America.
20. St. Vincent		
21. Tobago		
22. Grenada and the Grenadines		
23. Barbadoes		

On the Continent FRANCE had :—

1. Part of the province of Guiana in South America in which is the Colony of Cayenne.

Islands FRANCE had :—

1. Miqueton (*sic.*)
2. St. Pierre
3. Part of the Isle of St. Martin
4. St. Bartholomew
5. Martinico
6. Guadaloupe
7. Desirade
8. Marie Galante
9. St. Lucia
10. The east part of St. Domingo

} On the coast of Newfoundland.
} In the West Indies.

On the Continent SPAIN had :—

1. Mexico or New Spain
2. New Mexico
3. Louisiana
4. Terra Firma
5. The Country of Amazons
6. Peru
7. Chili
8. Terra Magellanica
9. Paraguay
10. Tucuman

} In North America.
} In South America.

Islands SPAIN had :—

1. Cuba
2. Porto Rico
3. The West Part of St. Domingo
4. Trinidad
5. Margarita
6. Cubagua

} In the West Indies.

And a great number of Islands on their Coast.

On the Continent the DUTCH had :—

1. Part of the Province of Guiana in which is the Colony of Surinam.

Islands the DUTCH had :—

1. Part of the Isle of St. Martin
2. Eustatia
3. Aves
4. Buenaventura
5. Curaçao
6. Aruba

} In the West Indies.

On the Continent PORTUGAL had :—

1. Brazil, in which are many Captainships
2. Part of the Province of Guiana

} In South America.

And a great number of Islands on the Coast of Brazil.

Islands DENMARK had :—

1. St. Thomas
2. Santa Cruz

} In the West Indies.

(G.)—LIST OF PRINCIPAL AUTHORITIES.

BOOKS IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER.

“Utrumque vitium est, et omnibus credere et nulli.” Sen.

LAS CASAS. Narratio Regionum Indicarum per Hispanos quosdam devastatarum verissima; prius quidem per Episcopum Bartholomeum Casauum, natione Hispanum Hispanice conscripta, & anno 1551, Hispali, Hispanice, anno verò hoc 1598 Latinè excusa. Francofurti. Sumptibus Theodori de Bry & Johannis Saurii typis. Anno M.D.XCVIII. (*Plates.*)

MIROIR OOST & WEST-INDICAL. Auquel sont descriptes les deux Dernieres Navigations, faites es Années 1614, 1615, 1616, 1617 & 1618, l'une par le renommé Guerrier de Mer, GEORGE de SPIELBERGEN, par le Destroict de Magellan, et ainsi tout autour de toute la terre . . . L'autre faictes par JACOB LE MAIRE, lequel au Costé du Sud du Destroict de Magellan, a descouvert un nouveau Destroict &c. A. Amstelredam, chez Jan Jansz, sur l'eau, a la Pas-carre, l'an 1621. (*Maps and Plates.*)

JOHN SPEED. A Prospect of the Most Famous Parts of the World, viz., Asia, Africa, Europe, America, with These Kingdomes therein contained &c. . . . Performed by John Speed. London. Printed by John Dawson for George Humble, and are to be sold at his Shop in Popes-head Pallace. 1627. (*Maps.*)

ROBERTS, LEWES. The Merchants Mappe of Commerce; wherein the Universall Manner and Matter of Trade, is compendiously handled, &c. . . . necessary for all such as shall be employed in ‘*le publique affaires* of Princes in forreigne parts; for all gentlemen and others that travell abroad for delight or pleasure; and for all Merchants or their Factores that exercise the art of Merchandising in any parts of the habitable world. At London. Printed by R. O. for Ralph Mabb, 1638. (*Portrait and Maps.*)

GAGE, THOMAS. The English-American, his Travail by Sea and Land, or a New Survey of the West Indias, &c., &c., by the true and painfull endeavours of Thomas Gage, now Preacher of the Word of God at Acris in the county of Kent. Anno Dom. 1648. Folio.

DENTON, DANIEL. A Brief Description of New York, formerly called New Netherlands, with the places thereunto adjoyning, Together with the Manner of its Scituion, Fertility of the Soyle, Healthfulness of the Climate, and the Commodities thence produced. Also Some Directions and Advice to such as shall go thither. An Account

of what Commodities they shall take with them ; the Profit and Pleasure that may accrue to them thereby. Likewise a brief Relation of the Customs of the *Indians* there. LONDON. Printed for John Hancock at the first shop in Popes-head-Alley in Cornhil, at the three Bibles, and William Bradley at the three Bibles in the Minories. 1670. (Reprint, New York, 1845.)

MONTANUS. *De Nieuwe en Onbekende Weereld : of Beschryving van America en 't Zuid-land, &c. . . . Verciert met Af-beeldels na't leven in America gemaect, en beschreeven door Arnoldus Montanus, t'Amsterdam.* By Jacob Meurs Boek-verkooper en Plaet-snyder, op de Kaisars-graft, schuin over de Wester-markt, en de Stad Meurs Anno 1671. Met Privilegie. (*Maps and Plates.*)

CLUVER. *Philippi Cluveri Introductionis in Universam Geographiam, tam veterem quam novam. Libri VI. Tabulis aeneis illustrati & gemino indice aucti, &c.* Amstelodami, apud Janssonio Waesergios, Anno M.D.CLXXVI. (*Maps.*)

ATLAS MINIMUS or A Book of Geography Shewing all the Empires, Monarchies, Kingdomes, Regions, Dominions, Principalities, and Countries in the whole World. By John Seller Hydrographer to the King and are sold at his House at the Hermitage in Wapping. Licensed R. L'Estrange. No printed date, but monogram of Charles II. and MS. date 1684, in my copy.

BLOME. The English Empire in America ; or a Prospect of his Majesties Dominions in the *West-Indies*. Namely Newfoundland, New-England, New-York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, &c. By R. B. Author of England's Monarchs &c., Admirable Curiosities in England &c. &c. London. Printed for Nath. Crouch at the Bell in the Poultry, Cheapside, 1685. (*Two Maps, incredibly incorrect, and two Plates.*)

MILLER, REV. JOHN. "New York Considered." A Description of the Province and City of New York with plans of the City and several Forts as they existed in the year 1695. Printed from the original MS. London 1843. (*Plans of New York, &c.*)

JOUTEL. *Journal Historique Du dernier voyage que feu M. de la Sale fit dans le Golfe de Mexique, pour trouver l'embouchure, & le cours de la Riviere de Missicipi, nommée à present la Riviere de Saint Loüis, qui traverse la Louisiane . . . Par Monsieur JOUTEL, l'un des Compagnons de ce Voyage, redigé et mis en ordre par Monsieur DE MICHEL.* A Paris, Chez Estienne Robinot, Libraire, Quay, & Attenant la Porte des Grands Augustins, à l'Ange Gardien. 1713. (*Map with view of Niagara.*)

LA VEGA. *Histoire des Yncas Rois du Perou, &c.* Traduite de l'Espagnol de l'Ynca Garcillasso de la Vega. Amsterdam, 1737. (*Map and Plates.*)

LA VEGA. *Histoire de la Conquete de la Floride.* Same place and date. (*Map and Plates.*)

HENNEPIN. *Nouvelle découverte d'un pays plus grand que L'Europe situé dans L'Amérique.* Same place and date. (*Map and Plates.*)

DE SOLIS, ANTONIO. History of the Conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards (Conquista de Mejico, 1684.) Translated by Thomas Townsend, and revised by Nathaniel Hooke. 2 vols., London, 1738.

CHARLEVOIX. Histoire et Description Generale de la Nouvelle France, avec Le Journal Historique d'un Voyage fait par ordre du Roi dans l'Amérique Septentrionale. Par le P. De Charlevoix, de la Compagnie de Jesus. Tome Premier, à Paris chez Pierre-François Giffart, rue Sainte Jacques, a Sainte Thérèse. 1744. Tome Second chez Didot, Quai des Augustins, à la Bible D'or. 1744. Tome Troisieme, same as T. 1. (Maps by Bellin, and botanical plates.)

COLDEN. The History of the Five Indian Nations of Canada, which are dependent on the Province of New York in America, and are the Barrier between the English and French in that part of the World, with &c. By the Honorable Cadwallader Colden, Esq., one of his Majesty's Counsel, and Surveyor-General of New York. . . . A work highly entertaining to all, and particularly useful to the Persons who have any Trade or Concern in that Part of the World. London, 1747. (Map.)

[HUSKE, JOHN.] The Present State of North America, &c. Part I. (all published). The second edition, with emendations. London, 1755. 4to.

ANON. State of the British and French Colonies in North America, with respect to number of people, Forces, Forts, Indians, Trade and other advantages. . . . In two letters to a friend. London, 1755.

ANON. An account of Conferences held, and Treaties made, between Major-General Sir William Johnson, Bart., and the chief Sachems and Warriours of the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, Senekas, Tuskaroras (and eight other) Indian Nations in North America at their meetings on different occasions at Fort Johnson, in the County of Albany, in the Colony of New York in the years 1755 and 1756. With &c. London, 1756.

[LIVINGSTONE.] A Review of the Military Operations in North America from the commencement of the French Hostilities on the Frontiers of Virginia in 1753, to the Surrender of Oswego, on the 14th of August, 1756. Interspersed with various observations, Characters, and Anecdotes, necessary to give Light into the conduct of American Transactions in General; and more especially into the Political Management of Affairs in NEW YORK. In a letter to a Nobleman. London, 1757. 4to.

SMITH, WILLIAM. The History of the Province of New York from the first discovery to the year 1732. First edition, 1757. Second edition, 1792.

ANON. The conduct of Major-Gen. Shirley, late General and Commander-in-Chief of his Majesty's Forces in North America. Briefly stated. London, printed for R. and J. Dodsley, in Pall Mall; and sold by M. Cooper, at the Globe, in Paternoster Row, 1758.

Post, C. F. The second Journal of Christian Frederick Post, on a message from the Governor of Pensilvania to the Indians of the Ohio. London, printed for J. Wilkie, at the Bible and Sun, in St. Paul's Church-Yard, 1759.

DOUGLASS. A Summary Historical and Political of the First Planting, Progressive Improvements; and Present State of the British Settlements in North America.

By William Douglass, M.D. London, 1760. (This, the second edition, contains *Huske's Map*. The 1st ed. publ. 1755 contains a map by D'Anville.)

MEMOIRE HISTORIQUE sur la Negociation de la France & de l'Angleterre, depuis le 26 Mars 1761, jusqu'au 20 Septembre de la même année; avec les pieces justificatives. Imprimée selon L'Edition publiée à Paris, par L'Autorité. à Londres, 1761.

DOBSON. Chronological Annals of the War; from its beginning to the present time. In two parts. Part I. containing from April 2, 1755, to the end of 1760. Part II. from the beginning of 1761 to the signing of the Preliminaries of the Peace. By Mr. Dobson, Oxford, at the Clarendon Press. 1763.

ANON. An Impartial History of the late War. Deduced from the committing of Hostilities in 1749, to the signing of the Definitive Treaty of Peace in 1763. London. 1763. (*Portraits and Plates*.)

ANON. A Complete History of the Origin and Progress of the Late War, from its commencement to the exchange of the Ratifications of Peace between Great-Britain, France and Spain; on the 10th of February, 1763, and to the signing of the Treaty of Hubertsberg, between the King of Prussia, the Empress-Queen, and the Elector of Saxony on the 15th of the same month. In two volumes. London. 1764.

ANON. An Impartial History of the late Glorious War from its commencement to its conclusion, &c. London. 1764.

ANON.* A Compleat History of the late War, or Annual Register of its Rise, Progress, and Events, in Europe, Asia, Africa and America, and exhibiting the state of the Belligerent Powers at the commencement of the War; their Interests and Objects in its continuance; interspersed with the characters of the able and disinterested Statesmen, to whose wisdom and integrity, and of the Heroes, to whose courage and conduct we are indebted for that Naval and Military success, which is not to be equalled in the annals of any other Nation. The Fourth Edition, Illustrated with a Variety of Heads, Plans, Maps and Charts. Dublin. Printed by John Exshaw at the Bible in Dame Street. 1766.

* NOTE.—This Title-page is printed in full, not because of the importance of the book, but as a fair specimen of the mingled Toadism and Bombast of which authors of the Georgian era were guilty, and which in this Victorian age has descended to the columns of the daily press, and the speeches of platform orators.

KNOX, CAPT. JOHN. An Historical Journal of the Campaigns in North America for the years 1757, 1758, 1759 and 1760, &c. 2 vols. 4to. London. 1769. (*Portraits and Map.*)

WYNNE. A General History of the British Empire in America: containing an Historical, Political and Commercial view of the English Settlements; including all the countries in North America and the West Indies, ceded by the Treaty of Paris. In Two Volumes. By Mr. Wynne. London. 1770. (*Maps, Plans and Plates.*)

KALM.* Travels into North America; containing its Natural History, and a circumstantial account of its plantations and agriculture in general, with the Civil, Ecclesiastical and Commercial state of the country, the manners of the inhabitants and several curious and important remarks on various subjects. By Peter Kalm, Professor of Economy in the University of Abo in Swedish Finland, and Member of the Swedish Royal Academy of Sciences. Translated into English by John Reinhold Forster, F.A.S. Enriched with a map, several cuts for the Illustration of Natural History, and some additional Notes. 3 vols., 8vo. Warrington. 1770.

ANON. A Collection of All the Treaties of peace, alliance, and commerce, between Great Britain and other Powers, from the Revolution in 1688 to the present Time. In two volumes. London. 1772. (The Supplement, in the second volume, carries the Treaties back to a much earlier date than 1688.)

ANON. The History of the British Dominions in North-America; from the first discovery of that vast continent by Sebastian Cabot in 1497, to its present glorious establishment as confirmed by the late Treaty of Peace in 1763. In Fourteen Books. London: printed for W. Strahan and T. Beckett & Co., in the Strand. 1773. (*Map by Peter Bell. 1772.*)

POWNALL. A Topographical Description of such parts of America as are contained in the (annexed) map of the Middle British Colonies, &c., in North America. By T. Pownall, M.P., late Govr. &c. of H.M.'s Provinces of Mass. Bay and S. C. and Lieut.-Gov. of N. J. London. 1776. (*See under Maps.*)

RAMSAY. Military Memoirs of Great Britain, or a History of the War, 1755-1763. With elegant copper-plates. By David Ramsay. Edinburgh. Printed for the author and sold by the principal Booksellers in Great Britain. 1779.

ROBERTSON. The History of America. By William Robertson, D.D., Principal of the University of Edinburgh. Historiographer to his Majesty for Scotland, and Member of the Royal Academy of History at Madrid. 2 vols. 4to. 2nd Edition. London, 1778. (*Maps by Kitchin.*)

*NOTE.—This translation is not from the Swedish, but from a German translation by the two Murrays, both of whom were Swedes.

CARVER. Travels through the Interior parts of North-America, in the years 1766, 1767, and 1768. By J(onathan) Carver, Esq., Captain of a Company of Provincial troops during the late war with France. Illustrated with copper plates, coloured. 3rd Edit. London, 1781. (*Maps.*)

ANBUREY. Travels through the Interior parts of America, in a series of letters. By an officer. [Thomas Anburey.] 2 vols. London, 1789. (*Maps and Plates.*)

MORSE. The American Geography or a view of the present situation of the United States of America. 2nd Ed. London, 1792. (*Two Maps.*)

WELD. Travels through the States of North America, and the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada during the years 1795, 1796, and 1797. By Isaac Weld, junior. 2 vols. 3rd Edition. London, 1800. (*Maps and Plates.*)

[**Mrs. GRANT.**] Memoirs of an American Lady (Mrs. Schuyler) with sketches of manners and scenery in America, as they existed previous to the Revolution. 2 vols. 2nd Ed. London, 1809. (Covers the period of the Seven Years' War.)

IRVING, WASHINGTON. A History of New York from the beginning of the World to the end of the Dutch Dynasty . . . By Diedrich Knickerbocker. London, 1820.

BANCROFT, GEORGE. History of the United States from the Discovery of the American Continent to the Declaration of Independence.

HUMBOLDT. Examen Critique de l'Histoire de la Géographie du Nouveau Continent et des progrès de l'astronomie nautique aux Quinzième et Seizième Siècles. Par Alexandre de Humboldt. 5 sections in 2 vols. Paris Librairie de Gide 1836-7 (*contains facsimiles of parts of Juan de la Cosa's and Ruysch's Maps.*)

HUMBOLDT. Examen Critique, another edition (same text.) Paris, Legrand, Pomey et Crouzet. n.d. (*Contains physical maps of America by Vuillemin under the direction of J. A. Barat.*)

CATLIN, GEORGE. Letters and notes on the Manners, Customs, and Condition of the North American Indians. London, 1841. (*Map and Illustrations.*)

O'CALLAGHAN. History of New Netherland; or, New York under the Dutch. By E. B. O'Callaghan, corresponding member of the New York Historical Society. New York and Philadelphia, 1846. (*Facsimile Maps.*)

MALLET, PAUL HENRI. "Introduction à l'Histoire de Danemark." Translated into English by Bishop Percy, under the title of "Northern Antiquities" and published in 1770. Bohn's Edition, by Blackwell. London, 1847.

HUMBOLDT. *Cosmos: A Sketch of a Physical Description of the Universe.* By Alexander von Humboldt. Translated from the German by E. C. Otté. 2 vols. H. G. Bohn. London, 1849.

ASHER, G. M. A List of the maps and charts of New Netherland, and of the views of New Amsterdam, being a supplement to his Bibliographical Essay on New Netherland, Amsterdam and New York, 1855. (*Facsimile Maps and Views.*)

SCHOOLCRAFT. Indian Tribes of North America. Philadelphia, 1853-1856. 5 vols. 4to. (*Maps and Plates.*)

KOHL, J. G. Descriptive Catalogue of those maps, charts, and surveys relating to America which are mentioned in Vol. III. of Hakluyt's Great Work. Washington, 1857.

RELATIONS DES JESUITES contenant ce qui s'est passé de plus remarquables dans les missions des Pères de la Compagnie de Jésus dans la Nouvelle France. Ouvrage publié sous les auspices du Gouvernement Canadien. 3 vols. 8vo. Quebec. 1858. (*A reprint of the rare Relations for 1611, 1626, 1632-1672.*)

NICHOLLS, J. F. (City Librarian, Bristol). The Remarkable Life, Adventures and Discoveries of Sebastian Cabot of Bristol. London. 1869.

STEVENS, HENRY. Historical and Geographical Notes between 1453 and 1551. New Haven, Connecticut, and London, 1869. (*Facsimile Maps.* See list of maps.)

PARKMAN, FRANCIS. Pioneers of France. The Jesuits in North America—La Salle and the discovery of the Great West—The Old Regime—Count Frontenac—Monteal and Wolfe—The Conspiracy of Pontiac—v. d. (*Maps and Plates.*)

HARRISSE, HENRI. Bibliotheca Americana Vetustissima. A description of works relating to America, published between 1492 and 1551. Paris. 1872.

THE ORIGINAL LISTS of Persons of Quality; Emigrants; Religious Exiles; Political Rebels; Serving Men sold for a term of years; Apprentices; Children stolen; Maidens pressed; and others who went from Great Britain to the American Plantations, 1600-1700. From MSS. preserved in the State Paper Department of Her Majesty's Public Record Office, England. Edited by J. C. Hotten. London. 1874.

DODGE, COL. RICHARD IRVING. The Hunting Grounds of the Great West, with Introduction by William Blackmore. London. 1877. (*Plates.*)

BUNBURY, E. H. A History of Ancient Geography among the Greeks and Romans from the earliest ages till the fall of the Roman Empire. Two vols. London. 1879. (*Maps.*)

KEITH JOHNSTON. A Physical, historical, political and descriptive Geography. By Keith Johnston, F.R.G.S. London. 1880. (*Maps and Illustrations.*)

HAYDEN AND SELWYN. North America. In Stanford's Compendium of Geography and Travel. London. 1883. (*Maps and Plates.*)

SEELEY. The Expansion of England. Two Courses of Lectures. By J. R. Seeley, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History in the Univ. of Cambridge, &c. London. 1883.

WEISE. The Discoveries of America to the year 1525. By Arthur James Weise, M.A. London. 1884. (*Facsimile Maps.*)

WINSOR, JUSTIN. Bibliography of Ptolemy's Geography. Cambridge (Mass.) University Press. 1884.

EAMES, WILBERFORCE. A list of Editions of Ptolemy's Geography, 1475-1730. New York. 1886.

LABBERTON, R. H. New Historical Atlas and General History. By Robert H. Labberton. London. 1887.

LUCAS, C. P. Introduction to a Historical Geography of the British Colonies. London. 1887. (*Maps.*)

STURLASON, SNORRE. The Heimskringla; or Sagas of the Norse Kings, by Snorre Sturlason; translated from the Icelandic by Samuel Laing. London. 1887. (*Maps.*)

SCHÖNER, JOHANN. Professor of Mathematics at Nuremberg. A Reproduction of his Globe of 1523 long lost, his dedicatory letter to Reymer von Streyperek, and the "De Moluccis" of Maximilianus Transylvanus, with new translations and notes on the Globe. By Henry Stevens of Vermont, &c. Ed. with an Introduction and Bibliography by C. H. Coote, Dep. of Printed Books, Brit. Mus. &c. &c. London. 1888. (*Facsimiles of globes and maps.*)

FISKE, JOHN. The Beginnings of New England, or the Puritan Theocracy in its relations to Civil and Religious Liberty. London. 1889. (*Map.*)

MARKHAM, CLEMENTS. A Life of John Davis, the Navigator, 1550-1605. Discoverer of Davis' Straits. By Clements R. Markham, C.B., F.R.S. London. 1889. (*Maps and Plates.*)

GRESWELL. History of the Dominion of Canada. By the Rev. William Parr Greswell, M.A., F.R.C.I., &c. &c. Under the Auspices of the Royal Colonial Institute. Oxford Clarendon Press. 1890. (*Maps.*)

DICTIONARIES. *Biographical.* Allen (Amer.), 1857; Hole, 1865; Drake (Amer.), 1872; Cates, 1881; Russell, N. D. Burke's Peerages. *Chronological.* Nichol's Tables, 1884; Haydn's Dict. of Dates, 19th Ed. 1889. *Classical Geography.* Dr. William Smith. *Geographical.* Index Geographicus. 1864. Lippincott's Gazetteer, 1883. *Bibliographical.* Sabin. (Amer.). *Historical.* Low and Pulling. 1884. *General.* Encycl. Brit. 8th and 9th Edd. Globe Cyclopedias.

EARLY MAPS OF WHICH FACSIMILES APPEAR IN BOOKS ABOVE MENTIONED (EXCEPT RIBERO'S, WHICH IS PUBLISHED SEPARATELY) IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER.

1880. Zeno. (A small copy of this map in Clements Markham's "John Davis" showing Estotiland and Drôges, Engroneland, Islanda, Frisland, Scocia, Norvegia, &c.)

1500. Juan de la Cosa's map. Discovered by Walckenäer, and identified by Humboldt in 1832. Scale 15 Spanish leagues to a degree. Original preserved in Royal Library at Madrid. Facsimile of the whole by Jomard, and, of portions, in Humboldt's "Examen Critique," 1836, Stevens's Notes, 1869, and Weise's Discoveries of Amer. 1884.

1502. The Cantino Map. "Carta da Nauigar per le Isole nouam^{te} tr (ovate) in le parte de l' India." Discovered in 1875, and therefore unknown to Humboldt. Original in the Bib. Estense at Modena. Facsimiles of western portion in Harrisse's "Les Corte-Real" 1883, and of a section in Coote and Stevens' Schöner, 1888.

1506—7. The Hunt-Lenox Globe. Copper, 4½ inches diam. Original in the Lenox Library, New York. Facsimiles of projection in plano, in Coote's Stevens's "Schöner," 1888, and Encyclo. Brit., Vol. X, 9th Ed., 1879, and pirated copies in several American publications.

1508.* Ruysch. "Universalior Cognite Orbis Tabula." The first engraved map showing any part of America, appears in the Ptolemy publ. at Rome in 1508. Facsimiles of portions in Humboldt's "Examen Critique," 1836. Stevens's Notes, 1869, and Weise's Discoveries, 1884.

1510. Peter Martyr's Map, published in his First Decade, 1511. Facsimile of portion in Steven's Notes, 1869, and Weise's Discoveries, 1884. The most accurate printed map of the coast from C. St. Roque to Honduras, according to Stevens, of any which have come down to us printed before 1534.

1511. Maiollo, Vesconte de. Map in a Portolano now in a private library in Madrid. Various other portolanos by the same hand, between this date and 1549, are extant. A facsimile of a portion of one of the maps, dated 1527, is given in Weise's Discoveries. 1884.

*NOTE.—The following subsequent editions of Ptolemy, published in the XVIth cent., contain maps showing America, viz.:—Venice, 1511 (Sylvanus)—Cracow, 1512 (Stobnicza)—Strasburg, 1512 (Waldseemüller)—Strasburg, 1520—Strasburg, 1522 (Lawrence Friesius)—Strasburg, 1525—Strasburg, 1532—Lyons, 1535 (Servetus)—Basle, 1540 (Sebastian Münster)—Vienna, 1541 (Servetus)—Basle, 1541 (re-issue of 1540)—Basle, 1542 and 1545—Venice, 1546 and 1548 (Italian transl.)—Basle, 1552 and 1555—Venice, 1561 (Ital.)—Venice, 1562 (Latin)—Venice, 1564 and 1574—Vienna, 1578 (Mercator), several editions, only one of which contains American maps—Venice, 1596—Arnheim, 1597—Louvain, 1597 (the 19 maps relate exclusively to America)—Vienna, 1597—Louvain, 1598—Venice, 1598 and 1599. Other editions are referred to by Eames and by Winsor, but details as to the maps are not given by them.

1513. Waldseemüller (*Hylacomylus*) in the Strasburg Ptolemy, 1513, has 20 maps. One of these is "Orbis typus universalis juxta hydrographorum traditionem." Another, "Tabula terre nove," is known as "The Admiral's Map," some holding that it was drawn by Columbus. Facsimiles of portions of the latter in Stevens' Notes and Weise's Discoveries. Waldseemüller's maps are supposed to have been prepared in 1507.

1514 (?) Part of a Portuguese Portolano. Facsimile of Kuntzman's facsimile of the original at Munich, in Stevens' notes.

1514. The Boulenger Globe. "Universalis Cosmographie descriptio tam in solido quam plano," in 12 gores, found in 1881. Now in the Kalbfleisch Library, New York. "America Noviter Reperta" is shown as a large island shaped like a boomerang, about one-third of it being North of the Equator. Facsimile by Pilinski, reproduced in Coote's Stevens' "Schöner." Said to be the earliest map on which the name "America" appears.

1515. Schöner's First Globe, preserved at Frankfort. The name America is applied to the southern portion, which appears as an island. The northern portion, also an island called "Parias," reaches to within 5 degrees of "Zipangri" (Japan). The mythical Great Southern Continent is shown as "Brasilia Regio." Facsimile projection of Western Hemisphere, reproduced from Wieser's "Magalhæs-Strasse," in Coote's Stevens' "Schöner."

1515. "Typus Universalis Terræ" in Reisch's "Margarita Philosophica" apparently taken from the Ptolemy of 1513, with some alteration. Facsimile of portion in Stevens' Notes. North America is marked "Zoana Meta," and S. America, "Paria seu Prisilia."

1520. Schöner's Second Globe, made at Bamberg, corresponds, with some variations, with his first globe. The northern island is called "Terra de Cuba," and there is a distinct suggestion of the promontory of Florida, Isabella (Cuba), and Hispaniola are shown as separate islands. "Terra Corterealis" (Labrador), appears as an island far to the N.E. of Terra de Cuba. The Southern Island is "America sive Brasilia vel Papagalli," while the great Southern Continent becomes "Brasilia Inferior." The original globe is at Nuremberg. Facsimile outline of Western half, reproduced from Wieser's "Magalhæs-Strasse," in Coote's Stevens' "Schöner."

1520. Cortes' Chart of the Gulf of Mexio, sent to Charles V. in 1520, and printed at Augsburg in 1524. Facsimile in Stevens' Notes.

1523. Schöner's Third Globe. A great improvement on the two former ones. North and South America are united by an Isthmus marked "Darienus." On the North-East is the name "Bacalao." "La Florida" is shown and named. The route of Magellan and del Cano is indicated by a line marked "Hoo navigationis itinere

egressi sunt," and "Hoc itinere reversi sunt." The Alexandrian line is marked "Linea divisionis Castellanorum et Portugallensium." Facsimiles of the gores of this globe and of the dedicatory letter sent with it by Schöner to Reymer von Streypergk, Canon of Bamberg, are given in Coote's Stevens's Schöner.

1529. Ribero. "Carta universal en que Se contiene todo lo que del mundo Se ha descubierto fasta agora, hizola Diego Ribero cosmographo de su Magestad: anno de 1529 en Sevilla: La qual se devide on dos partes conforme a la capitulacion que hizieron los catholicos Reyes de Espana y el Rey Don Juan de Portugal en Tordesillas, anno de 1494." A tolerably complete map of the world up to date. The original is in the museum of the Propaganda in Rome, and was lent by Pope Leo XIII. to the Indian and Colonial Exhibition in London, 1887. Facsimile, slightly reduced, by W. Griggs, London. (Quaritch.)

1531. Orontius Fine. "Nova et Integra Universi Orbis Descriptio—gemina cordis humani formula in plano coextensam." On this appears the "Terra Australis recenter inventa sed nondum plene cognita." The double-hearted shape is not convenient and Mr. Brevoort's reduction of this globe to Mercator's projection is of great assistance, and shows the utter confusion existing in the minds of the best geographers and mathematicians of the day, who are said to have agreed with Orontius. Thus "Cathay" appears in Mexico, and the East Coast of North America is joined to India, the coast line nowhere rising above 20° N. Lat. The original globe appears in the "Novus Orbis," Paris, 1532, and a facsimile of it and of the reduction to Mercator's projection in Stevens' Notes.

1532. Sebastian Münster. Map in the "Novus Orbis" of Grynaeus, 1532. As incorrect as any of the earlier maps, and far more so than some. North America is an island called "Terra de Cuba." South America, also an island, is named "America Terra Nova." A facsimile of a portion in Stevens' Notes.

1534. "La Carta universale della terra ferma et Isole delle Indie occidentali, cio è del mondo nuouo fatta per dichiaratione delli libri delle Indie, cauata da due carte da nauicare fatte in Sibilia da li piloti della Maiesta Cesarea." Stevens thinks the pilots referred to are Ferdinand Columbus and Diego Ribero. The East Coast line of both North and South America is fairly mapped, from Labrador to the "Stretto de Magallanes." Florida is shown as a peninsula, but Yucatan appears as an island. A reduced facsimile is in Stevens' Notes.

1542. Honter's Globe. Universalis Cosmographia. Shows North and South America as two islands, named respectively "Parias" and "America." Facsimile in Stevens' Notes.

1544. Sebastian Cabot. Mapa Mundi. The original is in the National Library in Paris. A facsimile of a portion of Jomard's facsimile of the original appears in

Stevens' notes, and of a smaller portion in Weise's Discoveries of America. The "Tierra prima Vista" marked on this map appears to correspond with Nova Scotia, or perhaps Cape Breton Island, and is placed in North Lat. $48^{\circ} 40''$, the Latitude of Cape North, the northern point of C. Breton Island, being $47^{\circ} 8''$ N. Lat.

1556. Ramusio. "Universale delle parte del Mondo Nvovamente Ritrovata." From the Ramusio of 1556. America represented fairly well. Tierra del Fuego forms part of a great Southern Continent. Reduced facsimile in Stevens' Notes.

1556. Giacomo de Gastaldi. Map of part of North America ("La Nvova Francia," "Terra de Nurumbega," &c.), in Ramusio, 1556. Facsimile in Weise's Discoveries of America.

1569. Gerard Mercator (New France, the St. Lawrence, &c., to Florida). Map made in Duisburg in 1569. Facsimile of portion of Jomard's facsimile, is in Weise's Discoveries of America.

1570. Ortelius. Copy of the Arctic map from the Atlas of Ortelius, 1570, is in Markham's "John Davis." The same places are marked in it as in the Zeno map, 1380, besides others.

1570. Sigurd Stephanus. Terrarum Hyperborearum Delineatio. Shows the parts of N. America named by the Scandinavian discoverers. Facsimile of portion in Weise's Discoveries of America.

1575. André Thevet. Map in "La Cosmographie Universelle," Paris, 1575. Reduced facsimile of a portion in Weise's Discoveries of America.

1576. Porcacchi. Map of the World. Enlarged facsimile in Stevens' Notes. The great Southern Continent is shown in great detail.

1587. Map of the Western Hemisphere, by F.G. Dedicated to Hakluyt, and appears in his edition of Peter Martyr's Decades. Paris, 1587. The longitudes are reckoned from Toledo. Facsimile in Stevens' Notes.

1616. Old Parchment Map annexed to a Memorial, presented by the Directors of the N.N. Company to the States-General, 18th Aug., 1616, purporting to shew the discoveries of Captain Cornelis Hendriksen in the "Onrust" (The Restless), 16 tons. It includes from $37^{\circ} 50''$ to $49^{\circ} 40''$ N. Lat., and from the west part of Nova Scotia on the east, to the Delaware on the west. The original is preserved at the Hague. A facsimile is given in O'Callaghan's "New Netherland."

1630. Map of Rensselaerswyck, by Gillis van Schendel. A facsimile of a copy of the original is given in O'Callaghan's "New Netherland."

1728. James Lyne. Map of the City of New York. Facsimile of part in Weise's Discoveries of America.

ORIGINAL MAPS NOT CONTAINED IN THE BOOKS ABOVE
MENTIONED IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER.

c. 1650-1660.* **Visscher.** *Novi Belgii novæque Angliæ nec non partis Virginie Tabula multis in locis emendata a Nicolao Joannis Visschero.* Contains an inset view of "Nieuw Amsterdam op t eylant Manhattans," the second earliest known.

c. 1690. A later edition of the same map, on which Philadelphia is shown, "per Nicolaum Visscher."

SELLER. *Atlas Terrestris; or, a Book of Mapps of all the Empires, Monarchies, Kingdomes, Regions, Dominions, Principalities, and Countreys in the Whole World, &c.* By John Seller, Hydrographer to the King's most Excellent Majestie. London, N. D. (Contains 48 maps dated from 1650 to 1664, among them the 1st Edition of Visscher's New Belgium and New England.)

1671. **OGILBY?** A map of New England and New York, sold by Thos. Basket and Richd. Chiswell. F. Lamb, Sculp. (A reduction of Visscher's map.)

SELLER. *Atlas Maritimus, or the Sea Atlas, being a Book of Maritime Charts describing the Sea Coast, Capes, Headlands, Shoals, Rocks and Dangers, the Bays, Roads, Harbors, Rivers and Ports in most of the known parts of the world.* By John Seller, Hydrographer to the King. London. M.DC.LXXV. (Contains 40 maps.)

1715. **MOLL.** *A New and Exact Map of the Dominions of the King of Great Britain on ye Continent of North America.* By Hermann Moll, Geographer. 1715.

1733. **POPPLE.** "A map of the British Empire in America, with the French and Spanish Settlements adjacent thereto." London.

1755. **JEFFERYS.** *North America from the French of Mr. D'Anville. Improved with the back Settlements of Virginia and course of Ohio. Illustrated with Geographical and Historical remarks.*

1755. *A New and Accurate Map of the English Empire in North America, representing their rightful claim as confirmed by Charters, and the formal Surrender of their Indian Friends, Likewise the Encroachments of the French with the several Forts they have unjustly erected therein.* By a Society of Anti-Gallicans.

* NOTE.—Asher gives a list of 25 early maps of the New Netherland or parts of it; of these 14 are identical, except sometimes in size, with this map, but which, if any, of them is the original from which the others were taken, he does not determine. The 14 maps are:—N. J. Visscher's—Van der Donck's—Hugo Allard's 1st—Schenk and Valk's 2nd, 1690—Montanus' 1671—Ogilby's, 1671—Hugo Allard's 2nd, 1673—Nic. Visscher's, 1690—Carolus Allard's 1st—Carolus Allard's 2nd—Joachin Ottens'—Reinier and Josua Ottens'—Danckers'—Lotter's copied from Danckers' and Allard's. The earlier maps he mentions are De Laet's, 1630, 1633 and 1640—Janson and Hondius', 1638—Janssonius' *Novus Atlas*, 1658, copied from De Laet—Schenk and Valk's—Hartger's and Blaeu's, 1642, 1658, 1662.

1755. *Carte des Possessions Angloises et Françoises du Continent de L'Amérique Septentrionale, 1755.* From *L'Atlas Methodique*. . . The Longitudes are given both from London and Ferro.

1755. *D'ANVILLE.* *Canada Louisiane et Terres Angloises.* Paris. 1755. (See Plate X., which is a reduction of the inset map of the St. Lawrence). This map is accompanied by a "Memoire" in 4to.

1755. *MITCHELL.* Map of the British and French Dominions in North America.

1758. Plan of the Town and Fortifications of Montreal or Ville Marie in Canada. Publ. by Jefferys. Jan. 1758.

1758. *GRIDLEY.* "A Plan of the City and Fortifications of Louisburg, from a survey made by Richard Gridley, Lieut.-Col. of the train of artillery in 1745. With a short account of its capture in 1745 by Peperell and Warren, and of its restoration to France by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapel (*sic*);" on the same sheet is "A Plan of the City and Harbour of Louisburg, with the French Batteries that defended it, and those of the English, showing that part of Gabarus Bay in which they landed and the ground on which they encamped during the siege in 1758." Also "A map of Gabarus Bay adjoining to Louisburg. N.B.—This Bay is so extensive that the whole British Navy may ride in it with safety." Publ. by Jefferys, Oct. 1758.

1759. [OAKLEY.] A Plan of Quebec, with a description and two insets, viz.:—"The Port and Environs of Quebec as it was when attack'd by the English," and "A Draught of Part of the River St. Laurence."

N. D. *JEFFERYS.* A correct plan of the Environs of Quebec and of the Battle fought on the 13th September, 1759; together with a particular detail of the French lines and Batteries, and also of the Encampments, Batteries, and Attacks of the British Army, and the Investiture of that city under the command of Vice-Admiral Saunders, Major-General Wolfe, Brigadier-General Monekton, and Brigadier-General Townshend. Drawn from the original surveys taken by the Engineers of the Army. Engraved by Thomas Jefferys, Geographer to His Majesty. A portion of overlay.

N. D. c. 1759. An Authentic Plan of the River St. Lawrence, &c. with the operations of the Siege of Quebec, &c. (Plate IV. is a reduction of the whole of this plan.)

1760. *JEFFERYS.* A Plan of the City of Quebec, the capital of Canada as it surrendered 18th September, 1760, to the British Fleet and Army. Publ. by Jefferys. Jany. 1760.

1768. *MONTRESOR.* Map of Nova Scotia or Acadia, with the Islands of Cape Breton and St. John's, from actual Surveys by Captⁿ. Montresor, Eng^r. 1768. Printed sold by A. Dury. In Jefferys' American Atlas.

1771. *JEFFERYS.* An exact chart of the River St. Lawrence from Fort Frontenac to the

Island of Anticosti, showing the soundings, rocks, shoals, &c. with views of the lands and all necessary instructions for navigating that River to Quebec. (From D'Anville's map of 1755.) In Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.

1771. LEWIS EVANS. A general map of the Middle British Colonies in North America, &c., originally published in 1756. This edition is similar to the original, but is from a different plate with a few alterations.

1772. BOWEN and GIBSON. An accurate map of North America, describing and distinguishing the British and Spanish Dominions on this Great Continent; according to the Definitive Treaty concluded at Paris, 10th Feb. 1763. Also, &c. The whole laid down according to the latest and most authentick improvements by Eman. Bowen, Geogr. to His Majesty, and John Gibson, Engraver. Published by Robt. Sayer, 1772. (The articles of the Treaty relating to America are printed on the map.)

1772 SAYERS. A map of the whole Continent of America divided into North and South, and West Indies, with a copious table fully showing the several possessions of each European Prince and State as settled by the Definitive Treaty concluded at Paris, Feb. 10th, 1763, the clauses of which relative thereto are inserted. Compiled from Mr. D'Anville's maps of that Continent, 1772. Publ. by Robt. Sayer at the Golden Buck, near Serjeants' Inn, Fleet Street, 1st April, 1772. (The table is printed above, see note F.)

1775. JEFFERYS. A new map of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton Island with the adjacent parts of New England and Canada, composed from a great number of actual surveys and other materials, regulated by many new Astronomical Observations of the Longitude as well as Latitude. By Thomas Jefferys, Geographer to the King. Publ. by Sayer and Bennett, June, 1775. (In Jefferys' American Atlas.)

1775. North America from the French of Mr. D'Anville. Improved with the English Surveys made since the Peace. Publ. by Sayer and Bennett, 1775. (In Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.)

1775. JEFFERYS. A map of the most inhabited part of New England, containing the Provinces of Massachusetts Bay and New Hampshire, with the Provinces of Connecticut (*sic*) and Rhode Island, &c., &c. Publ. by Thos. Jefferys, Geographer to H.R.H. the Prince of Wales. November, 1774. (Plate VII. is a reduction of a portion of this Map, which is in Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.)

1775. HOLLAND. The Provinces of New York and New Jersey with part of Pensilvania (*sic*) and the governments of Trois Rivieres and Montreal. Drawn by Capt. Holland, engraved by Thomas Jefferys. Publ. by Sayer and Jefferys. June, 1775. (Plate VIII. is a reduction of a portion of this Map, which is in Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.)

1775. SCULL. A Map of Pennsylvania, exhibiting not only the improved parts of that Province, but also its extensive Frontiers; laid down from actual surveys, and chiefly

from the late map of W. Scull, published in 1770; and humbly inscribed to the Honourable Thomas Penn and Richard Penn, Esquires, true and absolute Proprietaries and Governors of the Province of Pennsylvania and the Territories thereunto belonging. Publ. by Sayer and Bennett, June, 1775. (In Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.)

1775. FRY and JEFFERSON. A Map of the most inhabited part of Virginia containing the whole Province of Maryland, with part of Pensylvania (*sic*), New Jersey and North Carolina. Drawn by Joshua Fry and Peter Jefferson in 1775. Publ. by Sayer and Jefferys. (In Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.)

1776. A Map of the Middle British Colonies in North America. First published by Mr. Lewis Evans, of Philadelphia 1755; and since corrected and improved as also extended, with the addition of New England and bordering parts of Canada; from actual surveys now lying at the Board of Trade. By T. Pownall, M.P., with a Topog. Descrip. &c. London, 1776. (See under Books.)

1776. HOLLAND and POWNALL. The provinces of New York and New Jersey, with part of Pensylvania (*sic*) and the Province of Quebec. Drawn by Major Holland, Surveyor-General of the Northern District in America. Corrected and improved from the Original Materials by Governor Pownall, Member of Parliament, 1776. Publ. by Sayer and Bennett. (Plate V. is taken from the inset "Chart of the Mouth of Hudson's River from Sandy Hook to New York." There are two other insets, viz.:—"A plan of the City of New York" and "a plan of Amboy.") In Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.

1776. CARVER. A new map of the Province of Quebec, according to the Royal Proclamation of the 7th Oct. 1763, from the French Surveys connected with those made after the War. By Captain Carver and other officers in His Majesty's service. Publ. by Sayer and Bennett. Feby, 1776. (Plate IX. is a reproduction of the inset "Particular Survey of the Isles of Montreal." There are three other insets, viz.:—"A plan of Montreal or Villemarie," "The City of Quebec," and "Course of the River St. Lawrence, from La Valterio to Quebec,") (In Jefferys' American Atlas.)

1776. BRASSIER. A Survey of Lake Champlain, including Lake George, Crown Point, and St. John. Surveyed by order of His Excellency Maj-Gen. Sir Jeffrey Amherst, Knight of the most Honble. Order of the Bath, Commander-in-Chief of His Majesty's Forces in North America (now Lord Amherst). By William Brassier, Draughtsman. 1762. Publ. by Sayer and Bennett, August, 1776. (In Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.)

1776. SAUTHIER. A Topographical map of Hudson's River, &c. (Plate VI. is a reduction of the whole of this map.)

1777. SAUTHIER. A map of the inhabited part of Canada, from the French Surveys with the Frontiers of New York and New England, from the large Survey by Claude Joseph Sauthier. Engraved by Wm. Faden, 1777. (In Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.)

1783. SAYER and BENNETT. The United States of America with the British possessions

of Canada, Nova Scotia, and of Newfoundland, divided with the French; and the Spanish Territories of Louisiana and Florida according to the Preliminary Articles of Peace signed at Versailles the 20th of Jan., 1783. Publ. by Sayer and Bennett, Feb., 1783. (In Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.)

1783. POWNALL. A New Map of North America with the West India Islands, divided according to the preliminary Articles of Peace. Signed at Versailles, 20 Jan., 1783, wherein are particularly distinguished the United States and the several Provinces, Governments, &c., which compose the British Dominions, laid down according to the latest Surveys and corrected from the original materials of Gover Pownall, Mem^{or} of Parlia^{mt} 1783. (In Jefferys' Amer. Atlas.)

1825. TANNER, H. S. American Atlas. Improved to 1825. Philadelphia.

1833. DAVID H. BURR. Map of the State of New York, and Map of the city of New York. Publ. by Colton and Co. New York.

1834. AMOS LAY. Map of the United States, compiled from the latest and most accurate Surveys. New York.

1861. KEITH JOHNSTON and ROGERS. Map of the United States and Mexico, with Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and New England, and parts of Central America and the West Indies. Constructed from State Documents and unpublished materials, by Professor Rogers, of Boston, U.S., and A. Keith Johnston, F.R.S.E., Geographer to the Queen. With additions to 1875. Stanford. (The outlines of Plate III. are taken from this Map, the Towns and Forts being filled in from the earlier maps above mentioned.)

1882. STANFORD'S London Atlas of Universal Geography.

ADDITIONAL AUTHORITIES.

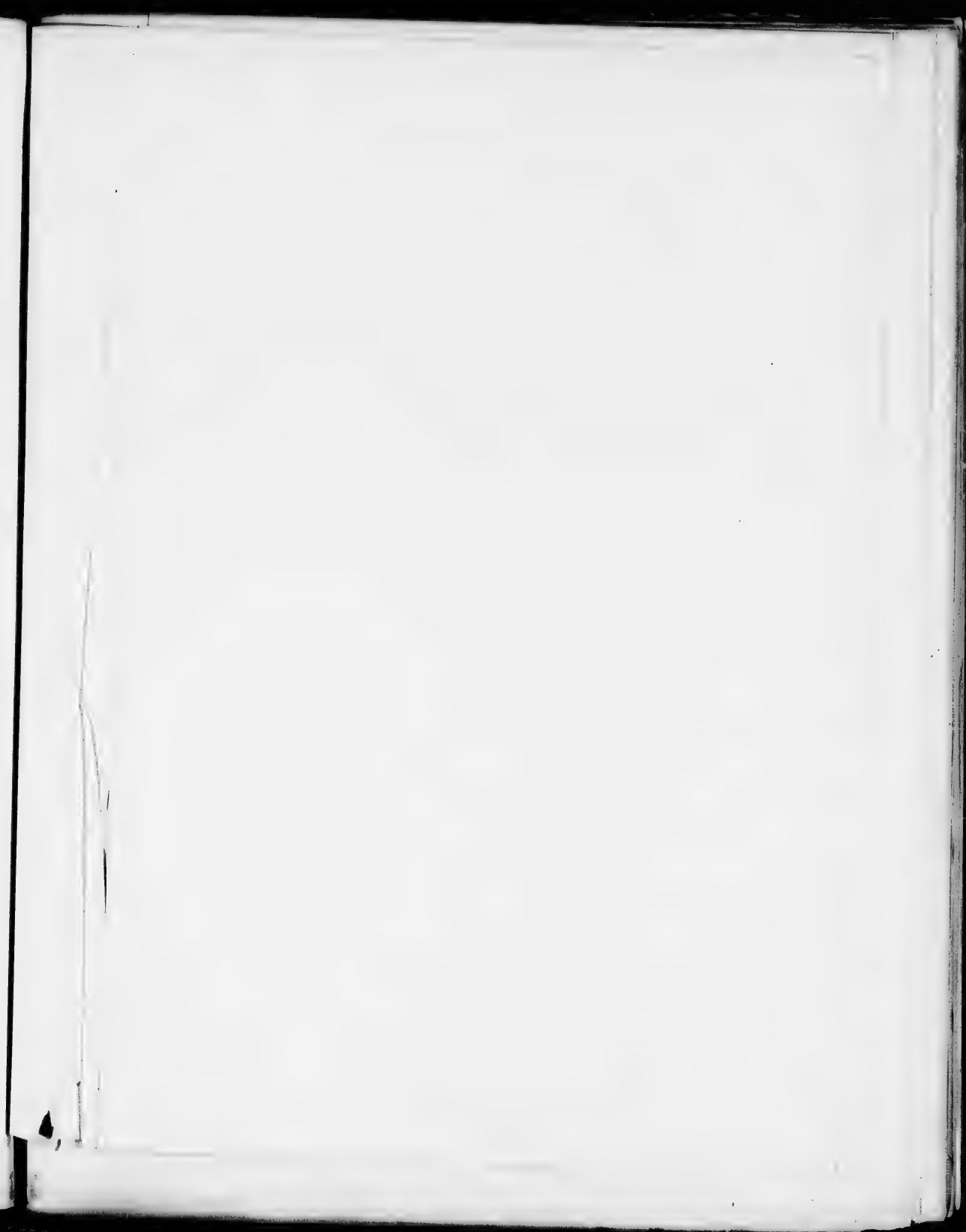
ZENO. Dello Scopriamento dell' Isole Frislanda, Eslanda, Engronelanda, Estotilanda and Icaria, fatto sotto il Polo Artico da due fratelli Zeni, M. Nicolo il K. e M. Antonio. LIBRO UNO. Con un Disegno particolare di tutti le dette parte di Tramontane da lor scoperte. Venice 1558. (The Map is entitled "Carta da Navegar de Nicolo et Antonio Zeni furono in Tramontana lano MCCCLXXX.")

LAHONTAN. New Voyages to North America, containing An Account of the Several Nations of that Vast Continent, their customs, commerce and way of navigation upon the lakes and rivers; the several attempts of the English and French to dispossess one another, with the reasons for the miscarriage of the former, and the various adventures between the French and the Iroquese confederates of England from 1683 to 1694. A geographical description of Canada, &c. &c. Written in French by the Baron Lahontan, Lord Lieutenant of the French Colony at Placentia in Newfoundland, now in England. Done into English. London 1703. (Mapps and Cutts.)

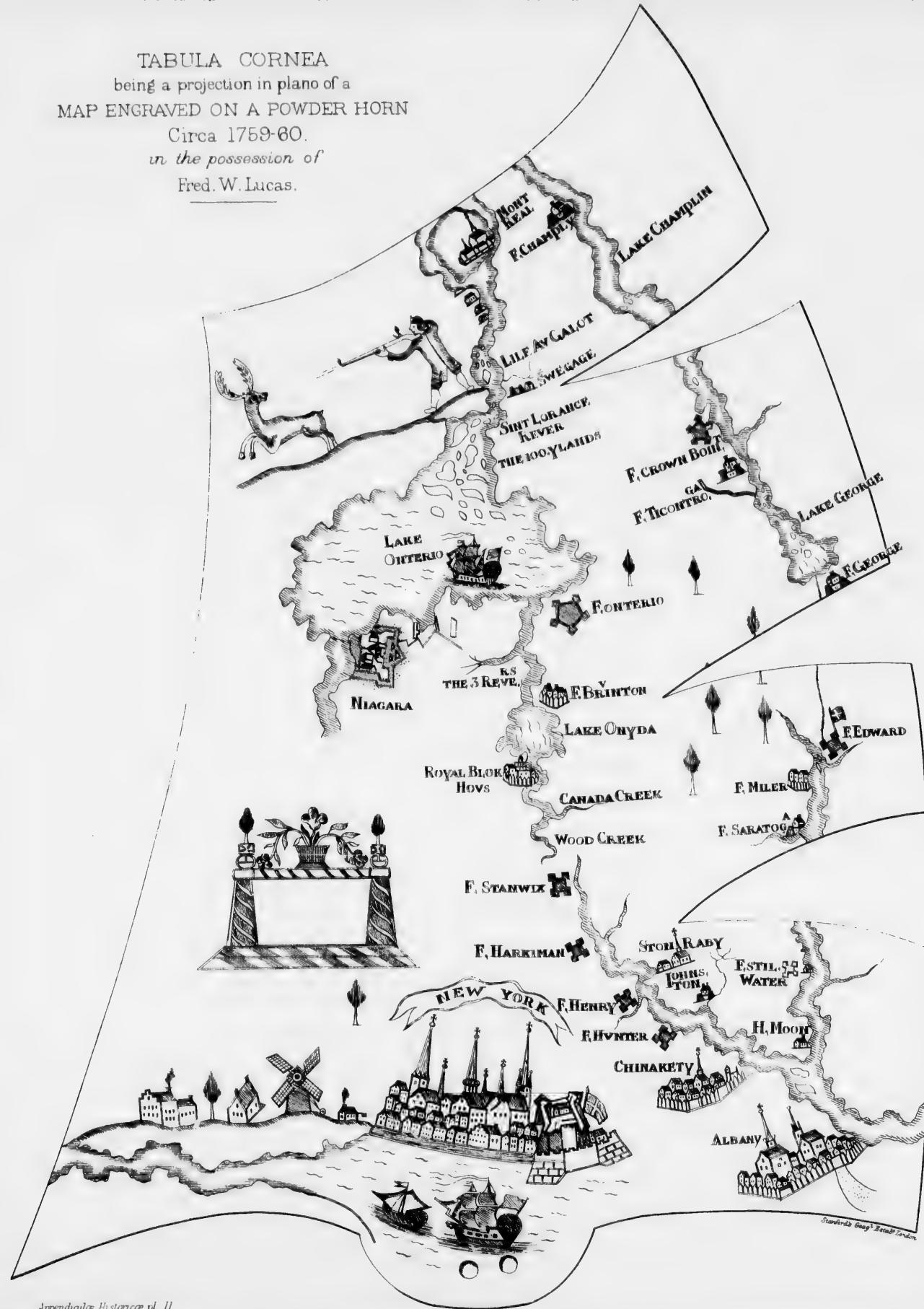
A MEMORIAL containing a summary view of Facts, with their authorities in answer to the observations sent by the English Ministry to the Courts of Europe. Translated from the French. New York: Gaine. 1757. (Some of the authorities, as Washington's Journal, Braddock's and Dinwiddie's Letters, were "found in General Braddock's cabinet after the engagement which cost him his life.")

ROGERS. Journals of Major Robert Rogers: containing an account of the several Excursions he made under the Generals who commanded upon the continent of NORTH AMERICA during the late War. From which may be collected the most material circumstances of every Campaign upon that Continent, from the commencement to the conclusion of the War. London. 1765.

DRAKE, SAMUEL G. A Particular History of the Five Years' French and Indian War in New England and parts adjacent, from its declaration by the K. of France, March 15, 1744; to the Treaty with the Eastern Indians, Oct. 16, 1748, sometimes called Governor Shirley's war. With a memoir of Major-General Shirley. Boston. 1870.

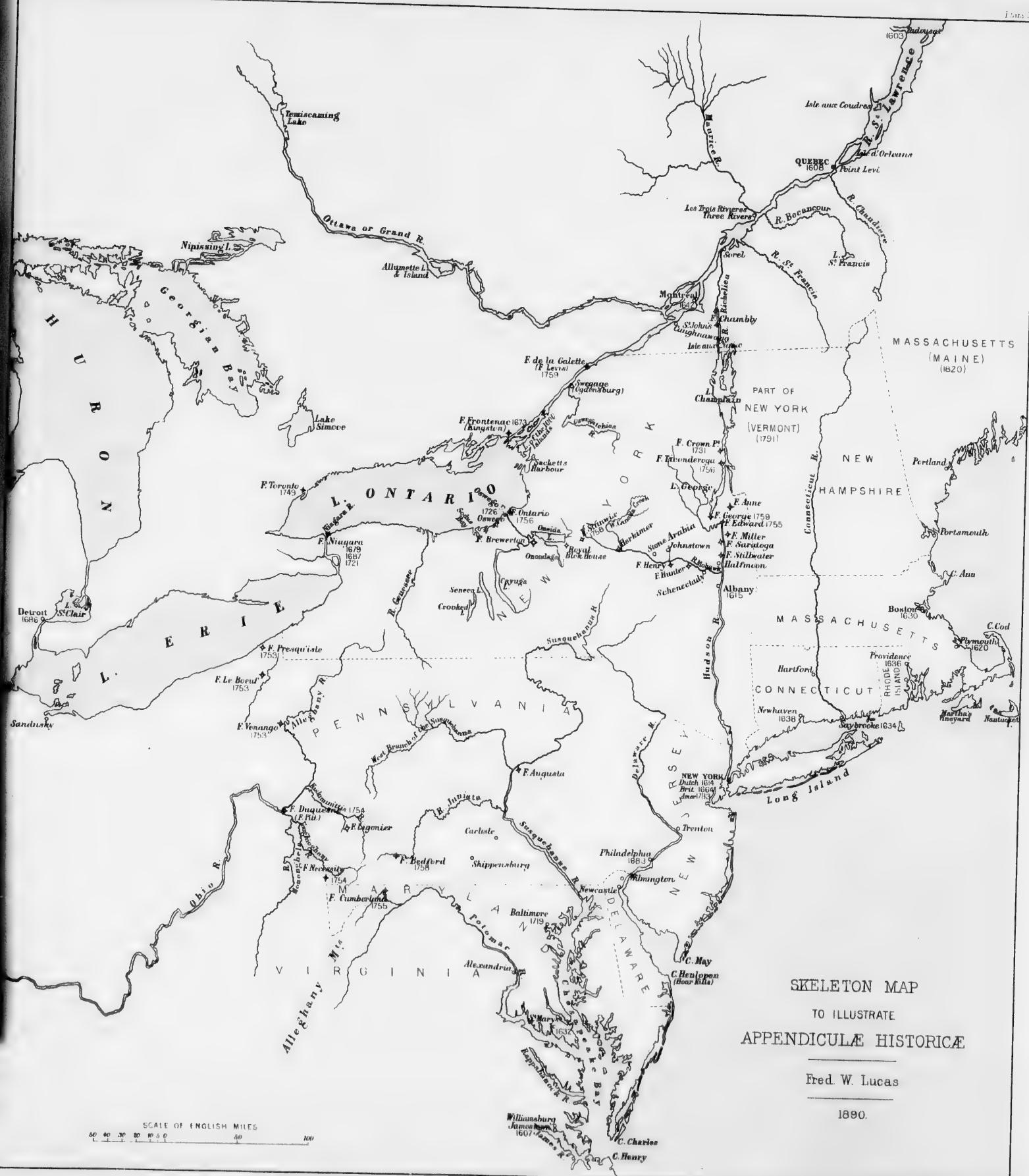


TABULA CORNEA
being a projection in plano of a
MAP ENGRAVED ON A POWDER HORN
Circa 1759-60.
in the possession of
Fred. W. Lucas.



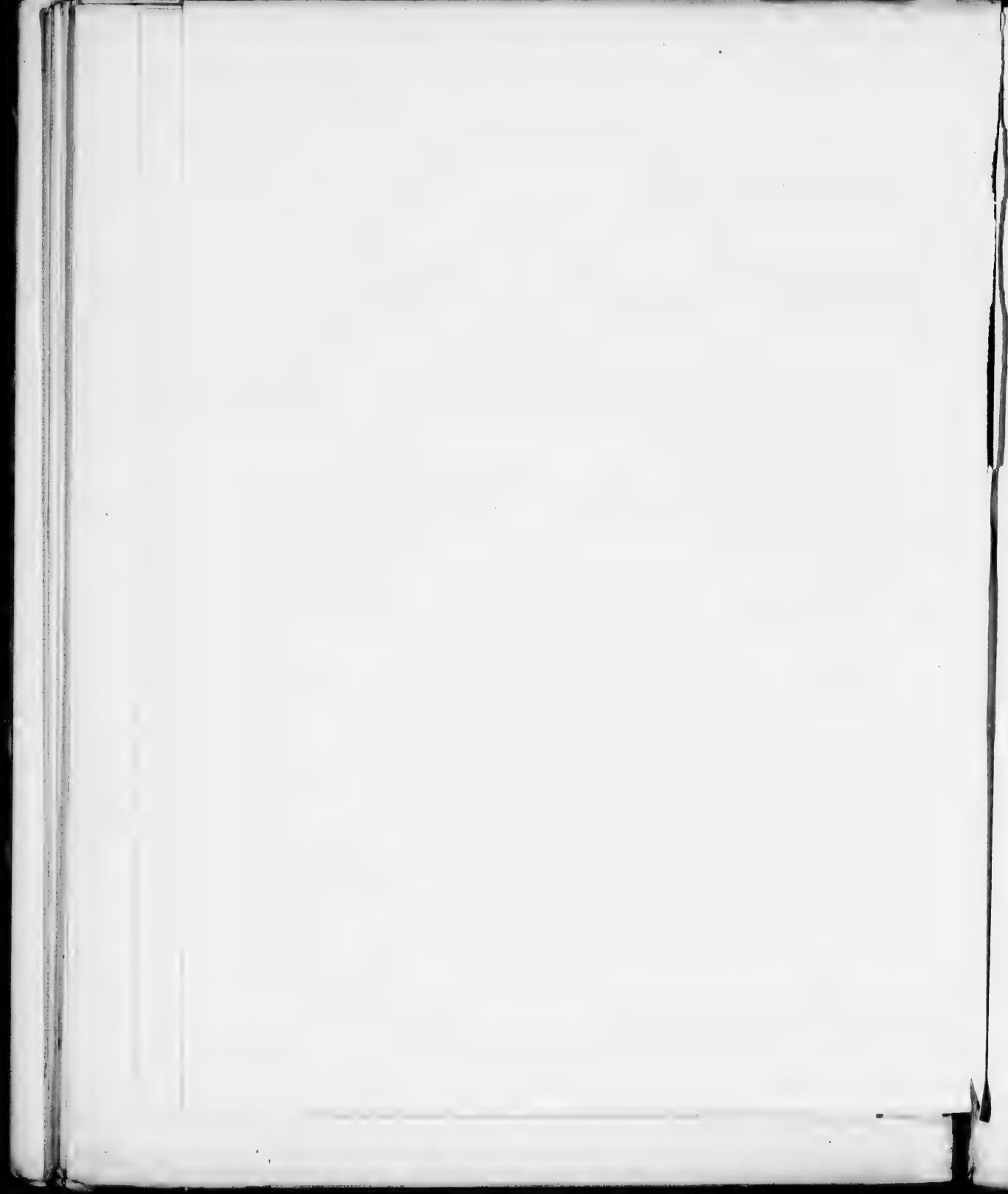






SKELETON MAP
TO ILLUSTRATE
APPENDICULÆ HISTORICÆ

Fred. W. Lucas



INDEX NOMINUM.

*The dates within brackets are those of birth and death;
c = about; a = before; p = after; v = lived.*

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INDEX LOCORUM.

ABBREVIATIONS:

Fla. = *Florida*; Mass. = *Massachusetts*; Md. = *Maryland*; N.C. = *North Carolina*; N.H. = *New Hampshire*; N.J. = *New Jersey*; N.S. = *Nova Scotia*; N.Y. = *New York*; Pa. = *Pennsylvania*; S.C. = *South Carolina*; Va. = *Virginia*.

ACADIA or **ACADIE**, the old French name for Nova Scotia; its boundaries were never defined, and though the name properly belonged, according to early French authors, to the peninsula forming the modern province of N.S., it was extended, in French maps of the middle of the 18th century, so as to cover the greater part of New Brunswick and a part of the province of Quebec. 24, 25, 31, 40, 41, 42, 48, 49, 54, 55, 64, 78, 138, 141, 142, 143, 147, 148, 156, 172.

AESOPUS, **SOPERS** or **SOPUS**, on Aesopus Kill. Hudson R. near the modern Kingston (Pl. vi.) 92, 106, 108.

ALABAMA. A Muscogee or Creek word signifying "a place of rest." One of the Southern States. 136.

ALASKA, Al-ay-ek-sa = Great country. Discovered by Behring, a Russian, 1741. Sold by Russia to the U.S.A. in 1867 for 7,200,000 dollars in gold. 6.

ALBANY. Orange, Aurania, Beaver Wyck or Williamstadt, now cap. of State of N.Y. (Pls. ii., iii., vi., vii.). 25, 27, 40, 42, 47, 53, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 73, 74, 90, 96, 97, 99, 102, 104, 105, 106, 108, 111, 112, 113, 116, 117, 118, 124, 139, 141, 143, 161.

ALEXANDRIA. Va., on the Potomac, 7 miles below Washington. (Pl. iii.) 49.

ALLEGHANY, or **Appalachian Mountains**: the first name is applied by some only to the portion of the chain, extending from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, which is in Pa., Md. and Va. The orthography of the word is not settled. (Pl. iii.) 46, 75.

ALLEGHANY RIVER. Rises in Potter Co. Pa. At Pittsburg it unites with the Mononghela and the united streams become the Ohio. 45, 142.

AMAZON R. (Marañon, Orellana, or Solimoes). Rises in the Peruvian Andes and flows into the Atlantic after a course of 4,000 miles. The largest river in volume in the world. The Indian word "Amasson" is said to mean "boat destroyer." 131, 136, 157.

ANDIAROCTE. Indian name for Lake George. *q.v.*

ANGOLESME, Lake of, on the St. Lawrence. 91.

ANNAPOLIS, Bay of Fundy, Nova Scotia, formerly Port Royal; distinguish from Annapolis cap. of Md. 54, 139, 142.

ANTICOSTI, Island of Canada, province of Quebec, in the estuary of the St. Lawrence. Area 3,845 square miles. 17, 156, 172.

APPALACHICOLA BAY. Florida, in the Gulf of Mexico, 133.

ARCHER'S CREEK (Chanonceau), on the Atlantic coast of Florida. 19, 137.

ARKANSAS RIVER. Rises in Colorado, flows into the Mississippi after a course of 2,000 miles, at Napoleon, Desha Co. Arkansas. 135.

ARKANSAS, Central State of the American Union. 136.

ATLANTIC OCEAN; Atlanticum Mare, La Mer Ténèbreuse; 7,000 miles long, from 4,400 to 1,600 miles wide. 6, 20.

AZORES, The, or Western Isles, Portuguese. In N. Atlantic. Nine principal Islands, viz.: Flores, Corvo, Terceira, São Jorge, Pico, Fayal, Graciosa, St. Michael and St. Mary. Known in the XIVth cent. 8, 13, 16, 129, 130.

BACCALAO, from Bacalhão, Basque word for codfish. Newfoundland. 18, 136, 168.

BAFFIN'S BAY. Named after William Baffin who explored it in 1613. 138, 156.

BAHAMA ISLANDS. See Lucayos.

BASQUE. Country of Spain. The three Basque provinces are Biscay, Guipuzcoa, and Alava. The French part of the Basque country is now comprised in the department of Basses-Pyrénées. 8.

BATISCAN. The modern town of this name also called Ste. Genevieve de Batiscan is on the R. Batiscan, 6 miles from its junction with the St. Lawrence. D'Anville, however, marks Batiscan on the Hudson itself, just above the confluence of the river Batiscan with the Hudson. (Pl. x.) 85.

BAY OF FUNDY. Separates Nova Scotia from New Brunswick. Length, about 170 miles; width, from 30 to 50. 138.

BAY OF NEW YORK. (Pls. v. and vi.) separating the S.W. part of Long Island from the mainland and joined to the Atlantic by the Narrows. 17, 134.

BAY VERTE, on the S. side of Northumberland Strait, forming part of the boundary between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. 97.

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BEHRING'S STRAITS. Separate America and Asia at their nearest points. Narrowest width, 36 miles. Connect Arctic and Pacific Oceans. 6, 141.

BELLE ISLE, NEWFOUNDLAND. At the eastern end of the Strait of the same name which divides Newfoundland from Labrador. (There is another and smaller Belle Isle off the east coast of Newfoundland.) 18, 136.

BELLE ISLE, off the coast of Morbihan, France. Captured by Admiral Keppel and Gen. Hodgson, 7 June, 1761; restored, 1763. 149.

BONACCA, or GUANAJA, one of the Bay Islands, Caribbean Sea, 30 miles N. of C. Honduras. 131, 132.

BORRIQUEN (San Juan Baptista, now Porto Rico.) See Porto Rico.

BOSTON, Cap. of Mass. (Pl. iii.) At the mouth of the Charles and Mystic rivers. 26, 40, 54, 63, 102, 107, 175.

BRAZIL. Became a Kingdom in 1815 under John VI. of Portugal. Proclaimed indep. 1822 under Dom Pedro Emp. he abdicated 1841, in favour of Dom Pedro II. who was deposed 1889, and Brazil became a Republic. 131, 158, 168.

BRERETON. See Fort Brewinton.

BREWERTON. See Fort Brewinton.

BRISTOL, Caer-odor == city of the breach (Anc. Brit.) Briestow == breach place (Sax.) formerly called Bristowe. On the Avon, England. The Merchants of Bristol despatched exploring expeditions across the Atlantic for 7 or 8 years in succession before the Cabots' successful voyage in 1497. 13, 14, 23, 130, 165.

BRITTANY, Bretagne, sometimes called "Little Britain," as distinguished from "Great Britain" united to France by the marriage of Charles VIII. to Anne, daur. of Francis II., the last Duke of B., in 1491. 8, 16.

BRUINTON. See Fort Brewinton.

BUENOS AYRES (good air) or Santissima Trinidad de Buenos Ayres, Cap. of the Argentine Rep. on the west of the estuary of the La Plata, about 150 miles from the sea. 135

CABO DE BOA ESPERANÇA, CABO TORMENTOSO. See Cape of Good Hope.

CADARACQUI. See St. Lawrence River, Fort Frontenac and Ontario Lake.

CADIZ, anc. Gades., on the Isle of Leon, off S.W. coast of Andalusia. 14, 130, 131, 132.

CAGHNUAGA, on the St. Lawrence. 42.

CAHOTATEA. Iroquois name for the Hudson R. *q.v.*

CALICUT, or KOLIKOD. Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Formerly Portuguese, but English since 1792. 131.

CALIFORNIA, (the New Albion of Drake, 1578). One of the Pacific States of U.S.A. 135, 136.

CALVAIRE, on the north bank of the St. Lawrence, close to St. Augustin, above Quebec, (Pl. x.) 85.

CAMDEN. Capital of Kershaw Co., S.C., about a mile E. of the Wateree River. 50.

CAMPEACHY or CAMPECHE. Mexico. Lat. $19^{\circ} 50''$ N.; Long $90^{\circ} 35''$ West, on the Bay of the same name. 133.

CANADA. An Indian word, as to the meaning of which there has been much discussion. Cartier said that it signified "a town"; Lescarbot says it is a proper name; Belleforest and Thevet translate it "Terre"; Charlevoix mentions both the above, and also a tradition that the name was given through the error of certain Spanish companions of Cartier, who mistook the Indian reply to enquiries for mines, "Aca Nada," *i.e.*, "ici rien," for the name of the country. It included, according to Cartier, a district north of the S. Lawrence from the Isle aux Coudres to some distance above Quebec, having Saguenay below, and Hochelaga above it. The name of New France was applied to Canada, Hochelaga and Saguenay at the time of Champlain's visit in 1609; 135 years later, in Charlevoix's time, "La Nouvelle France ou Canada," included the whole of North America north of the Illinois R. and the great lakes, with New England, Acadie and Labrador. The modern Dominion of Canada, includes all the British possessions in N. Amer. except Newfoundland, the W. Indian colonies and Belize, and has an area of 3,406,000 square miles. 18, 21, 25, 27, 29, 40, 42, 43, 44, 46, 47, 48, 58, 63, 78, 79, 80, 81, 86, 87, 96, 106, 108, 109, 112, 114, 116, 122, 123, 136, 140, 142, 144, 147, 149, 156, 161, 164, 166, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175.

CANADA CREEK, flowing from the N. into Wood Creek, Oneida. Distinguish from Canada Creek, now called West Canada Creek flowing into the Mohawk at Herkimer. (Pls. i., ii. and viii.) 119.

CANARY ISLANDS, anc. Fortunate Insulæ. Spanish since 1493. Seven principal Islands, viz., Lanzarote, Fuerteventura, Gran Canaria, Tenerife, Gomera, Palma and Ferro. In many old maps the zero of longitude is taken in Ferro, as its meridian is the assumed line dividing the E. & W. Hemispheres. Its conventional meridian, $17^{\circ} 40'$ W. of Greenwich, is not its true one, which is $18^{\circ} 9'$ W. 8.

CANIAD-ERI GUARUNTE. See Champlain Lake.

CAP BONAVISTA, Newfoundland. The S.E. limit of the coast on which the French were permitted by the Treaty of Utrecht, confirmed by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, to dry fish during the season. See Cape Rich. 148.

CAPE BLANCO. See C. Codera and C. Orford.

CAPE BRETON ISLAND (Isle Royale). Separated from mainland of Nova Scotia by the Gut of Canso. Length, 100 miles; breadth, 85 miles. 14, 25, 41, 42, 54, 141, 143, 144, 147, 148, 156, 170, 172, 173.

CAPE COD, Mass. Hudson, in 1609, under the impression that C. Cod was an island, called it "New Holland," and the Dutch afterwards named it "Staaten Hoeck," or States' Point. (Pl. iii). 6, 23, 129, 138, 139.

CAPE CODERA, or C. Blanco. On the Caraceas Coast, W.S.W. of Tortuga. 131.

CAPE FEAR, N.C., is the southern point of Smith's Island at the mouth of Cape Fear River, and is also the most southern point of the State. 17, 134.

CAPE HORN (properly Hoorn). The most southern point of America, on the last of the Fuegian Islands. 55° , $58'$, $40'$, S. Lat.; 67° , $16'$, W. Long. 135, 139.

CAPE NORTH. The N.E. extremity of Cape Breton Island. 170.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE (*Cabo Tormentoso*, Diaz; *Cabo de Boa Esperança*, K. John II. of Port.). Near the southern extremity of Africa, 34° , $22'$, S. Lat.; 18° , $29'$, E. Long. 11, 131, 137, 138.

CAPE ORFORD, or Cape Blanco. The most westerly point of Oregon. 42° , $50'$, N. Lat.; 124° , $32'$, W. Long. 136.

CAPE RACE. The S.E. extremity of Newfoundland. 46° , $40'$, N. Lat.; 52° , $54'$, W. Lat. 48.

CAPE OR POINT RICH, Newfoundland. S.W. limit of French privileges. See Cap Bonavista. 148.

CAP ROUGE. On the north bank of the St. Lawrence, 9 miles above Quebec. There is another Cap Rouge on N. bank of the St. Lawrence, below the I. of Orleans. 18, 136.

CAPE ST. AUGUSTINE (*Santo Agostinho*, Port.) Brazil. The most eastern point of S. America. $8^{\circ} 21'$ S. Lat.; $34^{\circ} 56'$ W. Long. 131.

CAPE S. HELENA. Marked on Ribero's Map, 1529. Probably at the mouth of the modern S. Helena's Sound, S.C. 134.

CAPE SAN ROQUE. N.E. coast of Brazil, $5^{\circ} 28'$ S. Lat.; $35^{\circ} 16'$ W. Long. 132, 167.

CAPE VERD (or **VERDE**) **ISLANDS** (*Ilhas Verdas*, Port.) In the Atlantic, 320 miles west of Cape Verd, the westernmost point of Africa. The group consists of Sal, Boavista, Mayo, Santiago, Fogo, Brava, Grande, Rombô, São Nicolao, Santa Luzia, Branco, Razo, São Vicente, and Santo Antonio, and several smaller islands. Belong to Portugal. 12, 16.

CARLISLE, Capital of Cumberland Co. Pa. (Pl. iii.) 75.

CAROGE, RIVER, flowing into the Mohawk on the north side, a little above Johnstown. 118.

CAROLINA (North and South.) 6, 17, 21, 28, 45, 129, 134, 140, 141, 156, 163, 173.

CARPUNT or CARPON (Charlevoix) one of Roberval's territories. Quirpon (?), an island off the N. point of Newfoundland. 18, 136.

CARTHAGENA, or CARTAGENA. Cap. of Bolivar, U.S. of Colombia. $10^{\circ} 25' 36''$ N. Lat.; $75^{\circ} 34'$ W. Long. 132.

CASCONCHIAGON, R. See Genessee R.

CASTLE ISLAND, in the Hudson, a little below Albany. The Dutch built a fort here in 1614. 91, 106, 107.

CATARACUI FORT. See Frontenac.

CATARACUI or CATARAQUI LAKE. See Ontario L. 117.

CATARACUI R. See St. Lawrence R. 117.

CATHAY, old name for China. 6, 9, 13, 17, 169.

CAT ISLAND, one of the Bahamas, long considered to be the first island discovered by Columbus, but that honour is now conceded to Watling Island. Length, 36 miles. Width, 3 to 7 miles. 12.

CAUTIO, original name for Florida. *q.v.*

CAYADUTTA CREEK, small stream flowing into the Mohawk a few miles above Schenectady. 118.

CHAMBLY, on the W. side of the Richelieu R., about 16 miles S.E. of Montreal. 87, 116.

CHAMBLY RIVER. See R. Richelieu.

CHAMPLAIN LAKE (Corlear's Lake), forms E. boundary of Clinton and Essex Cos. of N.Y. which it divides from Vermont. 26, 30, 42, 51, 52, 77, 80, 82, 86, 90, 91, 92, 97, 104, 112, 113, 114, 115, 142, 143, 144, 174.

CHAMPOTON, Mexico. At the mouth of R. Champoton, Campeachy Bay, 133.

CHANONCEAU R. See Archer's Creek.

CHARLESBOURG ROYAL (Cartier's Settlement) on the S. side of S. Lawrence, opposite R. Cap. Rouge. Not the modern Charlesbourg below Quebec. 18, 136.

CHARLES FORT on an island at the mouth of the R. Chanonceau, Fla. 19, 137.

CHAUDIÈRE RIVER, rises in L. Megantic, joins the S. Lawrence seven miles above Quebec, after N.N.W. course of 102 miles. 58, 93.

CHESAPEAKE BAY between Md. and Va. Its seaward boundaries are Cape Charles and Cape Henry, it is about 200 miles long, and receives the Susquehanna, the Potomac, Rappahannock, James, and other rivers. 21, 24, 134, 139.

CHILI. A Republic on West coast of S. America. 135, 137, 138, 157.

CHINA KETY, for Schenectady. *q.v.*

CHOUAGATCHI, R. See Oswegatchie R.

CHOUEGHEN R. See Onondaga R.

COCA RIVER. See Napo.

COHOES FALL, on the Mohawk, 116.

COLORADO, RIVER (Great). Formed by two branches of the Green and Grand Rivers which unite in Utah. Both of these rise in the Rocky Mountains. It runs S. and enters the Gulf of California in Mexico. Length about 1,050 miles. 135.

COLORADO, RIVER (Little). Rises in N.W. Texas, flows S. and enters Matagorda Bay. Length about 900 miles. 135.

COMPUESTA, Mexico. 135.

CONCEPTION (Santa Maria della Concepcion). An island of the Bahamas 25 miles S.E. of San Salvador. 130.

CONCORD. Middlesex Co., Mass., on the Concord river, and about 20 miles W.N.W. of Boston. 50.

CONNECTICUT, State of. One of the New England states of the American Union. 26, 96, 140, 165, 173.

CONNECTICUT RIVER (Siccahanis or Viresche), rises in N.H. and flows into Long Island Sound, length about 450 miles. 26, 91, 92, 97, 107, 140.

CONTENANT LAKE. See Ontario L.

COQUIBACOA, or **CHICHIBACOA**. The Cape forming the eastern point of the Gulf of Venezuela, now called Espada Point. 131, 132.

CORLEAR'S LAKE. See Lake Champlain.

CORLEAR. See Schenectady.

CÔTE STE GENEVIÈVE, West of Quebec. 84

COTOCHE, or **Catoche** Cape, north-eastern point of Yucatan. $21^{\circ}, 36'$, N. Lat.; $87^{\circ}, 6'$, W. Long. 133.

COZUMEL, Isle of. Off E. Coast of Yucatan. Length, 24 miles; width, 7 miles. 133.

CUBA (Colba, or Isabella). Largest of the W. Indian group. Length, 650 miles; width, from 30 to 110 miles. 12, 18, 130, 132, 133, 151, 154, 157, 168, 169.

CUBAGUA. Small island off Venezuela, 30 miles N. of Caraccas; between Margarita and the mainland. The Spaniards had a pearl fishery here. 136, 157.

CUMBERLAND. See also Wills' Creek. 49, 62, 74, 143.

CURAÇOA (Curaçao, Span.). Isla de Gigantes. The largest of the Dutch W. I. Islands. 75 miles N. of Venezuela. Length, 40 miles; greatest breadth, 10 miles. 131, 158.

CURIANA. Cumana and Gulf of Curiacos, N. coast of South America. 131.

CUTTYHUNK ISLAND. The most south-western of the Elizabeth Islands. At the entrance of Buzzard's Bay, Mass. 23.

DARIEN. The first Spanish province on the mainland of S. America, in the N.W. part of the modern U.S. of Colombia. 132.

DARIEN, Isthmus of, now called Isthmus of Panama. Unites North and South America. It is only 30 miles wide in its narrowest part. 132, 168.

DELAWARE. One of the middle Atlantic States, and the smallest state in the Union except Rhode Island. 28, 62, 141.

DELAWARE RIVER; its two principal branches the Coquago and Popacton rising in N.Y. unite at Hancock. It forms the boundary between N.Y. and Pa. Navigable for the largest ships to Philadelphia. 25, 27, 92, 100, 104, 140, 141, 170.

DESIRADE, one of the West Indian Islands, 4 miles west of Guadeloupe. 149, 153, 157.

DETROIT (the Strait). The largest city of Michigan and Cap. of Wayne Co., on the Detroit River, the strait connecting L. St. Clair with L. Erie. The French had a fortified trading village here at the end of the 17th cent. Besieged for 15 months by Pontiac, 1763. 37, 81, 144.

DIEPPE. Seaport in Seine Inferieure, France. The merchants of this port and of S. Malo were active in sending some of the earliest French expeditions to America. 8, 17, 132, 134, 139.

DOMINICA. One of the Leeward Islands (Brit.). 29 miles long, 16 wide. 88, 130, 149, 156.

EL DORADO ("The Golden" country). The old Spanish name for Guiana. The capital was the fabled city of Manoa. 138.

EL GRAN CAIRO, Yucatan. 133.

ELIZABETH ISLANDS. A group of 16 small islands off the coast of Mass., between Buzzard's Bay and Vineyard Sound. 23, 138.

ERIE (Presqu'isle). Capital of Erie Co., Pa., on Lake Erie. 44, 121.

EVANGELISTA (The Isle of Pines). 50 miles S. of Cuba, to which it belongs. 130.

FERNANDINA, or Crooked Island. One of the Lucayos or Bahamas, forming part of a group known as the Crooked Islands, consisting of, besides itself, Acklin, Fortune Key, and Castle I. 130.

FLEUVE IROQUOIS. See St. Lawrence River.

FLEUVE S. LAURENT. See St. Lawrence River.

FLORIDA (Cautio). Peninsula at south-eastern angle of N. America. The "East Florida" of the Spaniards, now, with some adjoining lands, one of the U.S.A. Long in dispute between France and Spain. Ceded to G. Brit. in 1763. Restored to Spain 1783. Passed to U.S.A. by treaty in 1819. Admitted to the Union 1845. Seced. 1861. Re-admitted to repres. in Congress 1868. 12, 14, 18, 20, 22, 89, 130, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 152, 156, 160, 168, 169, 170, 174.

FORT AMHERST. On the portage between F. Edward and L. George. 113.

FORT ANNE. On Wood Creek, Washington Co., N.Y. 73, 112, 114.

FORT AT THE FLATS. 4 miles from Albany. 108.

FORT BEAUSJOUR. French Fort on (modern) Cumberland Basin, Chignecto Bay, close to Fort Lawrence, Cumberland Co., Nova Scotia. 54, 55, 143.

FORT BREWINTON (Brereton, Brewerton or Bruinton). At W. end of L. Oneida. (Pls. ii. iii. and viii.) 81, 120.

FORT BRUINTON. See Fort Brewinton.

FORT BULL. On Wood Creek, Oneida. 57.

FORT CARILLON. See Ticonderoga.

FORT CAROLINE. On the R. of May, Florida. 19, 137.

FORT CASIMIR. Dutch Fort on the Delaware. 27, 100, 140.

FORT CHAMBLY, or Chamblan. On the Sorel or Richelieu River. (Pl. ii.) 87, 90, 105, 116.

FORT CHRISTINA, Swedish Fort on the Delaware. 27, 100, 140.

FORT CROWN POINT, or F. St. Frederic (Hammond's Corners) on L. Champlain. 26, 42, 49, 51, 52, 55, 57, 58, 63, 69, 71, 81, 112, 114, 115, 142, 143, 144, 174.

FORT DUQUESNE (Pittsburg) in the angle between the Alleghany and Mononghela. Pittsburg is now the Cap. of Alleghany Co. Pa. 45, 49, 50, 57, 58, 62, 69, 74, 75, 76, 77, 95, 121, 142, 143, 144.

FORT EDWARD, on the Hudson, 55 miles N. of Albany, Washington Co. N.Y. 51, 52, 59, 60, 62, 65, 66, 95, 111, 143.

FORT FRONTENAC or Cadaraqui (Kingston), formerly the Cap. of Upper Canada; after Quebec and Halifax, the most strongly fortified town in Canada. Est. Pop. in 1888 25,000. 43, 48, 53, 55, 57, 58, 60, 69, 73, 75, 77, 93, 121, 123, 126, 143, 141, 172.

FORT GASPEREAU (Fort Monckton), on Bay Verte, in Westmoreland " New Brunswick. 55, 143.

FORT GEORGE, at south end of Lake George; now a ruin. (Pl. ii.) 65, 82, 113, 144.

FORT GEORGE (Oswego), Fort Rascal, or New Oswego. See Fort Rascal.

FORT HALIFAX, on the R. Kennebec, in the angle formed by that river and the Sebasticook R. Kennebec Co. Maine, opposite the modern Waterville. 48.

FORT HARKIMAN (Pl. ii.) opposite the modern Herkimer. *q.v.*

FORT HENRY, or Hendrick, on the Mohawk. (Pl. ii.) 118.

FORT HUNTER, on the Mohawk, about 30 miles W. of Albany. (Pl. ii.) 118.

FORT LAWRENCE, now Amherst, Cap. of Cumberland Co. Nova Scotia. 54.

FORT LE BOEUF (Waterford), on Le Boeuf Creek (the Beef R.), Erie Co. Pa. 44, 45, 77, 81, 142, 144.

FORT LEVIS, on an island in the St. Lawrence, below La Galette. Built, 1759; destroyed by Amherst, 1760. 87.

FORT LYDIUS. See Fort Miller. (Father Roubaud erroneously calls Fort William Henry Fort Lydius).

FORT LYMAN. See Fort Edward.

FORT MACHAULT (Venango), now Franklin, the Cap. of Venango Co. Pa. or Alleghany at the mouth of French Creek. (There are no less than 22 counties Franklin, besides upwards of 150 towns, villages, &c., in the U.S.A. See Venango. 76.

FORT MATEO. See Fort San Mateo.

FORT MILLER, (F. Lydius or Nicholson) on the Hudson, 47 miles N. of Albany, in Fort Edward Township, Washington Co. N.Y. (Pl. ii.) 59, 112.

FORT NECESSITY, at Great Meadows, near Redstone Creek, Fayette Co. Pa. 45, 46, 51.

FORT NICHOLSON. See Fort Miller.

FORT ONTARIO. Oswego, on the right bank of the river. 61, 120.

FORT ORANGE, within the site of Albany. *q.v.* 92, 106, 107.

FORT PEPERELL, or Old Oswego. On the Oswego river. 60.

FORT PLAIN, on the Mohawk, 58 miles W.N.W. of Albany. 118.

FORT RASCAL (Oswego), New Oswego or Fort George. See Oswego. 59, 60.

FORT S. FREDERIC. See Fort Crown Point.

FORT SAN MATEO, the name given by the Spaniards to the French Fort Caroline. *q.v.* 19, 137.

FORT ST. JOHN, on the Richelieu R. 115, 116.

FORT S. JOHN, at the mouth of the R. St. John, Bay of Fundy in Charlotte Co. New Brunswick, opposite the modern city of St. John. 143.

FORT ST. THERESE, On the E. side of Lake Champlain. 115.

FORT ST. THOMAS. Built by Columbus in Hispaniola (Hayti) on his 2nd voyage. 130.

FORT SARATOGA. On the Hudson at the mouth of Fish Kill. 111.

FORT SCANECTADE. See Schenectady.

FORT STANWIX. At the E. end of the portage between the Mohawk and Wood Creek, Oneida. (Pl. ii.) 74, 81, 119, 144.

FORT STILWATER. See Stillwater.

FORT VAN NASSAUEEN. The Dutch Fort on Castle Island, Hudson R. 91.

FORT WILLIAM HENRY. Built by Johnson, 1755, at foot of Lake George. Destroyed by Montcalm 1757. 53, 59, 62, 63, 64, 65, 73, 80, 112, 113, 143, 144.

FORT WILLIAMS. On the Mohawk. 57.

FRANCE-ROY. Settlement founded by Roberval, near Cap Rouge, on the S. Lawrence, in 1542 and abandoned by him. 18, 91, 136.

FRISLAND (Iceland). In many of the early maps an island, called Frisland, is marked, as well as Iceland. The Zeni map, 1380, in which the name first appears, places Frisland between 61° and 65° N. Lat., four degrees due south of Iceland and shows many towns, bays, capes, &c. upon it. Cabot's map, made in 1497, does not show it at all. In Ruyssch's map, 1508, an island close to Iceland is shown, with the legend "Insula hae in Anno Dom. 1456 fuit totaliter combusta." Ortelius, 1570, copies the Zeni map. Peter Martyr's map in Hakluyt, 1587, shows Frisland between Greenland and Baccalaos. Cluver indeed says, "A meridie Islandio opposita est insula Friesland; et ipsa à frigoribus ac perpetuā fere hieme nomen habens, nulla re alia Regibus Anglicis, quibus parat; quam piscium captura utilis"; but his map does not show the island. Visscher shows it in his map of the world, 1652. As a matter of fact, there is no land, except Iceland and the southern part of Greenland (which was in early days supposed to be separated from the mainland by a navigable strait afterwards closed by ice) in or near the position assigned to Frisland. It seems reasonable to suppose that the marking of Frisland was one of the many blunders in the Zeni map, which was repeated by later cartographers, and that it is, if it ever existed at all, identical with Iceland. 7, 8, 129, 167.

FRONTENAC. See Fort Frontenac.

FRONTENAC, or Frontignac, Lake. See Ontario, Lake.

GABARUS BAY, Cape Breton Island, N.S., 10 miles S.W. of Louisburg. 172.

GENESSEE RIVER (Casconchiagon) rises in Potter Co., Pa., from which it passes into Alleghany Co., N.Y. It flows generally northward, and empties itself into Lake Ontario. Length, nearly 200 miles. 97, 121.

GENOA (anc. Genua, later Janua). Generally accepted as the birth-place of Christopher Columbus. Nine other places have claimed the honour. 11, 130.

GEORGIA. One of the Southern States of the American Union. 28, 29, 132, 134, 136, 140, 141, 156.

GERMAN FLATS. On the Mohawk. 60.

GIST'S SETTLEMENT. On the Youghiogeny river, Pennsylvania. 46.

GOOD HOPE, House of. Dutch fort on the Connecticut R., 1633. 26, 107.

GRACIA or LA GRACIA. One of the names given by Columbus to the part of the Amer. Continent first seen by him. See Isla Santa. 13, 130.

GRANDE ISLE in Lake Champlain; afterwards called South Hero. 114.

GRANDE ISLE, LA, in Lake Ontario. 126.

GRAND TURK ISLAND. One of the Bahamas or Lucayos Islands. 12.

GREAT BAY, The (La Grande Baye). On the South coast of Labrador, and Strait of Belle Isle. Here Fort Pontchartrain was built by the French. 18, 136.

GREAT MEADOWS. See Fort Necessity.

GREAT RIVER OF THE MANHATTANS. **GREAT RIVER OF THE MOUNTAINS**. **GREAT RIVER**. See Hudson R.

GREENLAND of Groenland. An extensive island on the N.E. of North America, belonging to Denmark, and stretching from Cape Farewell its S. extremity in Lat. $59^{\circ} 49' N.$, northward to about $80^{\circ} 15' N.$, and extending between 20° and 75° [W. Lon.] 6, 8, 129, 137, 167.

grenada. One of the West India Islands, Windward Group. Length $24\frac{1}{2}$ miles, breadth 10 miles. 88, 149, 156.

grenadines. Small group of Islands in the W. Indies. Extending from Lat. $12^{\circ} 30'$ to $13^{\circ} N.$, between Grenada and St. Vincent. 149, 156.

GROOTE RIVIER. See Hudson River.

GROOTE RIVIERE VAN NIEU NEEDERLANDT. This name was applied to the Upper St. Lawrence. See St. Lawrence R. 91, 92.

GROOTE RIVIER VAN CANADA. The Lower St. Lawrence. See St. Lawrence. 91, 92.

GUADALAXARA, Mexico. On the left bank of the Rio de Santiago, 275 miles W.N.W. of Mexico. 135.

GUADELOUPE. Island of the West Indies, Leeward Group. 11, 88, 130, 149, 153, 157.

GUANAHANI. See Watling Island.

GUANAJA, Islands of. See Bonacoo.

GUANTANICO. Same as Watling Island. *q.v.*

GUATEMALA, a republic of Central America. The name was formerly applied to the whole of Central America. 133.

GUIANA (El Dorado) in the N.E. of S. America, comprising the Colonies of British, French and Dutch Guyana. 138, 158.

GUISAY. The reputed old capital of Cathay (Hangchow, Chekiang, China). 13.

GULF OF MEXICO. On the E. coast of N. America, washing the shores of Mexico and the U.S., measuring about 1,000 miles from E. to W., and 800 miles from N. to S. 22, 168.

HALF MOON, on the Hudson, above the confluence of the Mohawk. (Pls. ii. iii. vi. vii. and viii.) 59, 108, 111.

HALIFAX. Seaport, and capital of Nova Scotia, on the South coast of that peninsula. It is situated on the West side of Chebucto Bay, now called Halifax Harbor. 64, 78.

HAMMOND'S CORNERS. See Fort Crown Point.

HARTFORD, Connecticut. On the right bank of the Connecticut River. 26, 107.

HAVANA. Capital of the Island of Cuba, on its N. coast. 89, 151, 154.

HAVER ISLAND. Hudson River, at the Mouth of the Mohawk River. 107.

HAYTI OR SAN DOMINGO. The modern name for Hispaniola, *q.v.* 14, 130, 131, 132, 134.

HELLGATE, New York. A narrow rocky part of the East River. (Pl. v.) 98.

HELLULAND. The Scandinavians had pre-Columbian settlements in Newfoundland which they called Helluland. 6, 129.

HERKIMER. On the N. of the Mohawk at the mouth of West Canada Creek. 98, 118.

HETMEER VAND IROCOISEN. The Dutch name for Lakes George and Champlain. 91, 114.

HISPANIOLA (Hayti or San Domingo). The largest Island in the West Indies except Cuba. Discovered by Columbus in 1493; and on its North coast was planted the first permanent colony established by Europeans in the Western hemisphere. Hayti is now a Republic of Negroes, the descendants of the Africau slaves imported by the Spaniards to replace the murdered Autochtones. Its barbarous condition shows the incapacity of the negro race for self government. See San Domingo. 14, 30, 130, 131, 134, 168.

HOCHELAGA. An Indian village found by Cartier on the Island of Montreal; the modern village of the name is on the east bank of the St. Lawrence. The name was applied in early days to a French province N. of the S. Lawrence, between the Ottawa and Lake Ontario; and to the River St. Lawrence. 17, 18, 21, 135, 136.

HONDURAS. A republic of Central America, Lat. $13^{\circ} 10'$ to $16^{\circ} 2'$ N., Lon. 83° to 90° W. 131, 132, 167.

HONDURAS, Bay of. Wide inlet of the Caribbean Sea, between Lat. 16° and 20° N. and Lon. 84° and 88° W. 151, 156.

HOSACK CREEK. A tributary of the Hudson. 111.

HUDSON'S BAY is an inland sea, connected with the Atlantic by Hudson Strait. Comprised between Lat. 51° and 70° N. and Lon. 77° and 95° W. It is 900 miles long and its greatest width about 600 miles. 94, 131, 137, 141, 156.

HUDSON'S BAY TERRITORY (North West Territories). Includes all that portion of British North America outside the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Manitoba, British Columbia, Prince Edward Island, Keewatin and Newfoundland. This immense district was, until 1870, governed by the Hudson's Bay Co., but the Company relinquishing governmental functions it passed into the hands of the Dominion of Canada. 41, 109.

HUDSON RIVER. Cahotata; Great River of the Manhattans; Gr. R. of the Mountains; Great R.; Manhattans R.; Mauritus or Mauritz R.; Mohican; Montaigne R.; Noort or North River; Santaty; Shatemu River. Rises from several lakes among the Adirondack Mountains, New York, and flows into New York Bay at N. York City. Length about 350 miles. 17, 25, 42, 51, 53, 59, 60, 90, 91, 92, 93, 97, 98, 99, 101, 104, 107, 108, 110, 111, 113, 116, 125, 139, 143, 174.

HUITRAMANNA LAND. Early Scandinavian settlement in Virginia and North Carolina. 6, 129.

HURON, LAKE. The third in size of the five great lakes, bounded on the S.S.W. by the state of Michigan, and in other directions by the Canadian province of Ontario. Length about 280 miles, greatest breadth about 105 miles. 31, 39, 121, 142.

IBERVILLE, River. Louisiana. 148.

ICELAND (called Island), an island subject to the crown of Denmark, and situated between the North Atlantic and the Arctic Ocean. Iceland was discovered by a Norwegian pirate in 860, and permanently settled in 870, but it is believed to have been known to the Irish fishermen, and temporarily colonized by them before this period. 6, 7, 167.

IDAHO, a north-western territory of the U.S., lying upon the Pacific slope, and principally in the basin of the Columbia River. 35.

ILLINOIS RIVER is formed by the junction of the Des Plaines and Kankakee Rivers. It flows into the Mississippi River about 18 miles above Alton. Length 350 miles. 28, 37, 97.

IROCOISEN, Meer Vand. Lakes Champlain and George, *qq.v.*

IROCOISENSIS or IROQUOIS R. See Richelieu R., also St. Lawrence River.

ISABELA ISLAND. See Saomete.

ISABELA. On the N. coast of Hayti, 36 miles W.N.W. of Santiago. 130, 168.

ISLA DE GIGANTES. See Curaçoa.

ISLAND OF ORLEANS, in the River St. Lawrence, 4 miles N.E. of Quebec. Length, 20 miles; greatest breadth, 6 miles. 79, 91, 92.

ISLA RICA. In the Pacific, off the Isthmus of Darien. 132, 133.

ISLA SANTA. Name given by Columbus to the part of America first seen by him. 130.

ISLE CAUCHOIS. In the St. Lawrence, a little below Lake Ontario. 126.

ISLE AUX COUDRES (Hazel Island). In the St. Lawrence, 12 miles S.E. of St. Paul's Bay. 79.

ISLE AU GALOT. At the north end of Lake Ontario (not Lile au Galot, *q.v.*). 126.

ISLE AUX NOIX. In the River Richelieu, near the southern boundary of Quebec. The French built a fort here in 1759 and called it Fort Isle aux Noix (Fort Lennox). 81, 82, 86, 115.

ISLE OF PINES. See Evangelista.

ISLE SAINTE THÉRÈSE. In the St. Lawrence, at the foot of the Island of Montreal. 86.

ISTHMUS OF PANAMA (Isthmus of Darien), the connecting link between North and South America, separating the Atlantic from the Pacific Ocean. 131.

JACQUES CARTIER. On the St. Lawrence, at the mouth of the Jacques Cartier River. 84, 88.

JAGARA. See Niagara.

JAMAICA (Yamayé). One of the Great Antilles, and the principal of the British West India Islands. 28, 130, 134, 156.

JAMES RIVER, of Virginia, called by the Indians Powhatan, and named by the English in honor of James I. Formed by the juncture of Jackson's and Cowpasture Rivers, and flows into Chesapeake Bay. 24, 139.

JAMES TOWN, on the North bank of the James River. 24, 139.

JOHNSON CASTLE. On the Mohawk. 51, 118.

JOHNSON HALL. In the modern Johnstown, *q.v.*

JOHNSTOWN or JOHNSTON, capital of Fulton Co. N.Y., on Cayadutta Creek, 48 miles W.N.W. of Albany. 51, 118.

JORDAN RIVER, probably the Santee River, S.C. (See Santee R.) 134.

KENNEBEC RIVER, Maine. Rises in the Moosehead Lake, runs southward and flows into the Atlantic about 14 miles south of Bath. Length about 200 miles. 47, 48.

KINGSTON, Ontario. See Fort Frontenac.

KINGSTON, Cap. of Ulster Co., N.Y., between the Δ esopus and Hudson rivers, and about 2 miles from the latter, 54 miles S. of Albany. (Pls. iii. and vi.) 102, 106, 108, 126.

KISTANNING, or KITTANNING, on the E. bank of the Alleghany river, Armstrong Co. Pa. 62.

KJALARNE. Early Scandinavian settlement at Cape Cod. 6, 129.

LABRADOR, or NEW BRITAIN. A peninsula on the E. coast of British North America, Lat. from 50° to 65° N., and Lon. from 56° to 78° W. Labrador was discovered by Cabot in 1497, and rediscovered by Hudson in 1610. 8, 14, 16, 18, 21, 129, 130, 131, 136, 156, 168, 169.

LA CHINE, on the St. Lawrence, 9 miles above Montreal. (Pl. ix.) 87, 124.

LAC TECHEROQUEN. See Oneida Lake.

LACUS IROCOISIENSIS, or Meer de Irocoisen. Lakes Champlain and George. *qq.v.* 92.

LA GALETTE, on the river St. Lawrence, a little above Fort Lévis. 87, 93.

LAKE CHAMPLAIN. See Champlain L.

LAKE ERIE. One of the five great lakes drained by the St. Lawrence, forms part of the boundary between the U.S. and Canada. Length, 240 miles, greatest breadth, 58 miles. 28, 43, 92, 95, 97, 142.

LAKE GEORGE (Saint Sacrement, Andiaroote, sometimes erroneously called Horicon), a long lake in N.Y. Length, about 36 miles. 51, 52, 53, 59, 60, 62, 64, 65, 70, 72, 73, 80, 91, 92, 97, 112, 113, 115, 143, 174.

LAKE MAUREPAS, in the E. part of Louisiana, at the mouth of the Amite River. Length about 13 miles. 148.

LAKE MICHIGAN. The largest but one of the five great lakes, and entirely included within the U.S. 335 miles long, and greatest breadth 88 miles. 28, 97, 121.

LAKE OF A THOUSAND ISLES, or Lac des Mille Isles, an expansion of the St. Lawrence, near Lake Ontario, containing the group called "The Thousand Islands." 125.

LAKE ONTARIO. See Ontario Lake.

LAKE PONTCHARTRAIN, Louisiana, about 6 miles N. of New Orleans, and 3 miles E. of Lake Maurepas, with which it is connected. Length, 40 miles; greatest breadth, 25 miles. 148.

LAKE ST. CLAIR. Between the province of Ontario and the State of Michigan, also between Lakes Huron and Erie. Length, 30 miles; greatest breadth, 24 miles. 28.

LAKE ST. FRANCIS (Lac S. François), an expansion of the St. Lawrence above Montreal. (Pl. x.) 125.

LAKE ST. LOUIS, an expansion of the St. Lawrence, 9 miles S.W. of Montreal. Length, 20 miles; greatest breadth, 7 miles. (Pl. x.) 124.

LAKE ST. PIERRE (Lac St. Pierre). In the St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Quebec. See also St. Peter's Lake. (Pl. x.) 92.

LAKE ST. SACRAMENT. See Lake George.

LA PLATA (Porto Plata). On north coast of Hayti. 134.

LA PLATA, Rio de. See Rio de la Plata.

LA PRAIRIE DE LA MADELEINE. On the south shore of the St. Lawrence, 7 miles S. of Montreal. 105.

LA PRESENTATION. Piquet's Mission Station on the St. Lawrence, at the mouth of the Oswegatchie River. 87, 125.

LARIAB. Early name for Venezuela, according to Vespucci. 15.

LA VALTERIE. On the N. shore of the St. Lawrence, 35 miles N.E. of Montreal. (Pl. x.) 174.

LAUREL HILL, Pennsylvania. 46.

LENOX. See Niagara.

LES TROIS RIVIERES (The Three Rivers), city of the province of Quebec, at the confluence of the Rivers St. Maurice and St. Lawrence, 90 miles from Quebec, and 90 miles from Montreal. One of the oldest towns in the province, having been founded in 1618. (See also Three Rivers), 37, 86, 123, 124, 127, 173.

LEXINGTON, Middlesex Co., Mass., 11 miles W.N.W. of Boston. 50.

LIGONIER BAY, Lake Champlain. About 40 miles north of Crown Point. 82.

LILE AU GALOT. On the Horn Map; in the St. Lawrence, a little below Montreal. Not to be confounded with Isle au Galot, L. Ontario. 125, 126.

LIMA, capital of Peru, on the Rimac River. 135.

LITTLE NIAGARA, a French Fort on Niagara River, about a mile and a half above Niagara. 81.

LONG SAUT, LE. Rapids in the St. Lawrence about 30 miles above Lake St. Francis. (Pl. x.) 125.

LORETTÉ. On the St. Charles, 8 miles N.W. of Quebec. (Pl. x.) 85.

LOUISBURG, or Louisbourg, Cape Breton, Nova Scotia. On the S.E. shore of the island. 64, 69, 77, 78, 83, 143, 172.

LOUISIANA. Now applied to one of the Gulf States of the American Union, but formerly embracing a huge indefinite tract of North America, chiefly West and North of the Mississippi. 28, 76, 89, 96, 141, 144, 157, 160, 171, 174.

LOYALHANNON CREEK, Pa., runs N.W. through Westmoreland Co., and unites with the Conemaugh River at Saltsburg. 75, 76.

LUCAYOS, or BAHAMA ISLANDS. Group of about 700 islands, belonging to Great Britain, lying N.E. of Cuba, and E. of the coast of Florida. One of these Islands was the first land sighted by Columbus in his voyage of 1492, and named by him San Salvador. Colonized by the English 1629, and subsequently changed masters repeatedly, but were finally ceded to the British in 1783. 12, 134.

MADEIRA. Island in the Atlantic Ocean, belonging to Portugal, about 440 miles off the W. coast of Morocco. Discovered by Don Joás Gonzales Zárate and Tristão Vaz in 1420; the name Madeira was given from the magnificent forests of timber (in Portuguese, "madeira") which then covered it. 8, 103, 134.

MAGELLAN, Straits of, divide the continent of S. America from the Islands of Tierra del Fuego. They are upwards of 300 miles long. 134, 137, 138, 156, 169.

MAINE. One of the New England States of the American Union. 24, 98, 138, 139, 142.

MANHATES. Manhattan Island. *q.v.*

MANHATTAN ISLAND. Situated at the mouth of the Hudson River. 24, 91, 92, 98, 107, 139.

MANHATTANS R. See Hudson R.

MANILA. Capital of the Island of Luzon, and of all the Philippine Islands. 89.

MAQUAAS KILL. See the Mohawk River.

MARAÑON, RÍO. See River Amazon.

MAR DULCE. See Río de la Plata.

MAR DEL SUR or ZUR (The Pacific). *q.v.*

MARGARITA, Island of. Off the N. Coast of S. America. 131, 157.

MARIEGALANTE. 11, 130, 149, 153, 157.

MARKLAND. Early Scandinavian settlement in Nova Scotia. 6, 129.

MARTHA'S VINEYARD, an island about 4 miles off the Coast of Massachusetts. Length 21 miles. 138.

MARTINIQUE, one of the West India Islands. It is about 45 miles long, and from 10 to 15 miles broad. 88, 149, 153, 157.

MARTYR'S ISLAND, off the extreme southern point of Florida. 132.

MARYLAND. One of the Middle Atlantic States, and one of the original thirteen United States. First colonized in 1634 by English Roman Catholics under Leonard Calvert, a brother of Lord Baltimore, the patentee and proprietor. 14, 25, 47, 55, 62, 96, 101, 130, 140, 156, 160, 173.

MASSACHUSETTS, one of the Eastern or New England States, and one of the original thirteen States of the American Union. It was first settled by the Pilgrim Fathers in the year 1620. 6, 23, 24, 25, 26, 47, 50, 53, 96, 129, 138, 139, 140, 142, 163, 173.

MAURITIUS or MAURITZ RIVER. See Hudson R.

MER TENEBREUSE, LA. See Atlantic.

MEXICANA. North America. See also Peruana. 7.

MEXICO. Formerly called New Spain; in the southern part of N. America. 18, 30, 135, 157, 161, 169, 175.

MEXICO, City of. Capital of Mexico. Formerly built on several islands in the Lake of Tezoooco, and although still having the same site, it is now, owing to various causes, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the lake. 133, 134.

MICHELON, ISLAND OF. Off the S. coast of Newfoundland. 148, 153, 157.

MISSISSIPPI RIVER (Father of Waters). The largest and most important river of the U.S., rises in the N. part of Minnesota, and empties itself into the Gulf of Mexico. 18, 28, 37, 43, 97, 135, 141, 148, 149, 152, 153, 160.

MISSISSIPPI. One of the Gulf states of the American Union. 136.

MISSOURI. A central state of the American Union. 136.

MOBILE. Cap. of Mobile Co., Alabama, on the W. bank of the Mobile River, at its entrance into Mobile Bay. 148, 153.

MOBILE RIVER, Alabama, is formed by the junction of the Alabama and Tombigbee Rivers. Empties itself into Mobile Bay. Length about 45 miles. 148, 153.

MOHAWK R. (Maquaas Kill.) Rises in Lewis Co., New York, and flows into the Hudson 9 miles above Albany. 25, 30, 42, 51, 53, 57, 59, 60, 73, 90, 92, 93, 97, 98, 107, 111, 116, 118, 119, 125, 127.

MOHICAN. Mincees' name for the Hudson R. See Hudson River.

MONONGHELA RIVER, a branch of the Ohio, is formed by the West Fork and Tygart's Valley River. It is about 150 miles long. 44, 45, 50, 142.

MONTAIGNE R. See Hudson R.

MONTEREY, California, on Monterey Bay, 94 miles S.E. of San Francisco. 136.

MONTMORENCI RIVER, rises in Snow Lake, and enters the St. Lawrence 8 miles N.E. of Quebec. 80.

MONTRÉAL (Mount Royal). City of the province of Quebec, Canada. Cartier landed here in 1535, and found an Indian village called Hochelaga. He re-named the place "Mont Royal." First settled by Europeans in 1542, but abandoned the following year, and, one century afterwards, the spot destined for the city was named Ville Marie, a name which it retained for a long period. (Pls. ii., iii., ix., and x.) 17, 18, 26, 27, 28, 40, 58, 60, 62, 84, 85, 86, 87, 90, 92, 93, 95, 96, 104, 105, 114, 115, 116, 117, 121, 122, 123, 135, 140, 142, 144, 171, 173, 174.

MOSQUITO GULF, Nicaragua, Central America. 131.

MOUNT DESERT ISLE. About a mile off the coast of Maine, 15 miles long and 12 miles wide. 139.

NAHANT, Essex Co., Mass.; 12 miles N.E. of Boston. 138.

NANSETT HARBOUR, on the east face of Cape Cod, Mass. 139.

NANTUCKET ISLAND, about 20 miles S.E. of the mainland of Massachusetts. About 15 miles long. 129, 138.

NAPO, or **COCA RIVER**, Ecuador, rises on the N. side of Cotopaxi, and joins the Amazon after a course of about 800 miles. 136.

NARRAGANSET BAY, Rhode Island, about 28 miles long, including the N. part called Providence Bay, width about 12 miles. 134.

NASSAU. See Niagara.

NESTIGAYUNA. About 20 miles N. of Albany. 108.

NETHERLANDS, THE, or the Low Countries, formerly comprising the whole of the present Kingdom of the Netherlands, together with that of Belgium. 13, 21, 22, 23, 91, 98.

NEW ALBANY. See Albany.

NEW ALBION. The English name for that part of the country which was afterwards called by the Dutch New Netherlands. The same name had been previously applied by Sir Francis Drake to the part of the west coast of North America visited by him. 100.

NEW AMSTERDAM. The early Dutch name for New York City. See New York. 24, 27, 92, 100, 107, 141, 165, 171.

NEW ANDALUSIA. Early name for Spanish settlements in the Northern part of South America. 132.

NEWARK. See Niagara.

NEW BRITAIN. See Labrador.

NEW BRUNSWICK. Province of the dominion of Canada, extending from Lat. $45^{\circ} 5'$ to $48^{\circ} 40'$ N. Lon., $63^{\circ} 50'$ to $68^{\circ} W$. First settled by the French in 1639. 41, 175.

NEWCASTLE. Capital of Newcastle, Co. Delaware. On the Delaware River. 27, 28, 141.

NEW ENGLAND (formerly North Virginia). A collective name for the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut, in the N.E. of the U.S. 23, 25, 26, 31, 33, 37, 38, 43, 47, 51, 52, 58, 59, 65, 100, 101, 134, 139, 140, 156, 160, 166, 171, 173, 174, 175.

NEWFOUNDLAND (Bacalao). 6, 8, 16, 17, 18, 20, 21, 22, 40, 89, 129, 130, 135—138, 141, 147, 151, 156, 157, 160, 174.

NEW FRANCE. Early French name for Canada. See Canada. 21, 22, 25, 93, 161, 165, 170.

NEW GALICIA. Former Spanish Province in N. America. 135.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. One of the New England States of the American Union. 24, 25, 29, 63, 140, 142, 173.

NEWHAVEN. Capital of Conn., at the head of New Haven Bay, 4 miles above its entrance into Long Island Sound. 26, 140, 165.

NEW JERSEY. One of the Atlantic States of the American Union. 24, 47, 53, 62, 96, 139, 156, 160, 163, 173, 174.

NEW NETHERLANDS or NEW BELGIUM. The early Dutch settlements in America. 25, 27, 91, 96, 99, 100, 104, 107, 118, 140, 141, 159, 165, 170.

NEW ORLEANS. Cap. of Louisiana, on the Mississippi, about 100 miles above its delta. Founded in 1718. 43, 149.

NEW OSWEGO. See Fort Rascal.

NEW PLYMOUTH, MASSACHUSETTS. The landing place of the Pilgrim Fathers. 25, 26, 36, 107, 140.

NEW SWEDEN. The early Swedish settlement on the Delaware. 25, 27, 100, 140.

NEW YORK. (New Amsterdam) 24, 27, 29, 40, 41, 42, 47, 57, 59, 62, 63, 64, 72, 81, 90, 91, 92, 95, 96, 97, 98, 105, 106, 107, 108, 110, 111, 112, 116, 134, 139, 141, 142, 156, 159, 160, 161, 164, 165, 168, 170, 171, 173, 174, 175.

NIAGARA. French fort on Lake Ontario on the right bank of the Niagara River at its mouth. 40, 41, 43, 44, 49, 53, 55, 57, 58, 74, 77, 80, 81, 87, 90, 93, 116, 121, 127, 142—144.

NIAGARA (Lenox, Nassau or Newark) on Lake Ontario on the Canadian bank of the Niagara River. 121.

NIAGARA, Unghiara or Jagara River which forms part of the boundary between New York and Ontario, issues from the eastern end of Lake Erie at Buffalo, runs nearly northward, and falls into Lake Ontario. Length about 35 miles. 31, 121.

NIAOURE BAY (Sackets Harbour). Lake Ontario, on the East side. (Pl. viii.) 126.

NIPISSING, LAKE, Ontario, is situated N.E. of Lake Huron, nearly midway between it and the Ottawa River. Discharges itself into Lake Huron by French River. Length 50 miles, breadth 35 miles. 26, 31.

NOORT R., or NORTH RIVER, the lower Hudson. See Hudson R.

NORMAN'S KILL. (Tawalsontha Creek) on the Hudson R. 106.

NORUMBEGA. Early name for a district about the Hudson. 18.

NOVA SCOTIA, originally Acadie, now a province of the Dominion of Canada, lying between $43^{\circ} 25'$ and 47° N. Lat. and between $59^{\circ} 40'$ and $66^{\circ} 25'$ W. Lon. See Acadia. 6, 14, 41, 42, 49, 54, 94, 96, 97, 129, 130, 133, 134, 138, 141, 142, 147, 148, 156, 170, 172, 173, 174, 175.

OGDENSBURG. See Swegage.

OHIO. A north-east central State of the American Union. 141.

OHIO RIVER. An important affluent of the Mississippi, is formed by the Alleghany and Mononghela Rivers which unite at Pittsburg, Pa. Flows into the Mississippi at Cairo. Length about 1,000 miles. 41, 42, 44, 45, 46, 49, 67, 77, 142, 162, 171.

OKSWEGO, L. See Lake Eric.

OLD LORETTE, on the river St. Charles. (Pl. x.) 85.

OLD OSWEGO. See Fort Peperell.

ONEIDA, LAKE. New York. It is about 20 miles long, and its greatest width is 6 miles. (Pls. ii., iii. and viii.) 26, 53, 57, 58, 59, 81, 90, 92, 97, 117, 119, 120.

ONEIDA RIVER, rises in the W. extremity of Lake Oneida, it is about 16 miles long, and unites with the Seneca River about 12 miles N.N.W. of Syracuse to form the Oswego River, formerly called also the Onondaga River. (Pls. ii., iii. and viii.) 120.

ONONDAGA, an Indian village, formerly the rendezvous of the Iroquois, on Onondaga Creek, about 4 miles from the modern Syracuse. 41, 44.

ONONDAGA, LAKE, Onondaga Co., New York, about 2 miles N.W. of Syracuse. Length, 5 miles; breadth, about a mile. (Pl. iii.)

ONONDAGA RIVER. See Oneida River.

ONTARIO, LAKE, Contenant, Cataracui or Frontignac. (Pls. i., ii., iii. and viii.) 26, 28, 30, 31, 37, 43, 44, 53, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 67, 69, 73, 77, 78, 86, 90, 91, 92, 93, 95, 96, 97, 104, 109, 120, 121, 122, 125, 126, 142, 143.

ONTARIO, FORT. On Lake Ontario, at the mouth of the Oswego River, on its right bank. (Pl. ii.) 59, 60, 61, 86, 144.

ORANGE. See Albany.

ORINOCO, RIVER, South America. Rises in the Sierra Nevada of Venzuelan Guiana, and empties itself into the Atlantic Ocean. Length, 1,600 miles. 130.

OSWEGATCHIE. See Swegage.

OSWEGATCHIE (CHOUAGATCHI) RIVER, New York, rises near the N. border of Herkimer Co., and flows into the St. Lawrence at Ogdensburg. Length, 130 miles. 42, 95, 125.

OSWEGO. On the S.E. shore of Lake Ontario, at the mouth of the Oswego River. (Pls. iii. and viii.) 41, 43, 52, 53, 54, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 65, 73, 74, 80, 81, 87, 90, 97, 109, 118, 120, 126, 142, 143, 144, 161.

OSWEGO RIVER, is formed by the junction of the Seneca and Oneida Rivers, and after a course of about 24 miles it enters Lake Ontario at the City of Oswego. Formerly also included in the Onondaga R. 120, 121.

OTTAWA RIVER. A large river of Canada, rises near Lat. $48^{\circ} 30'$ N. and Lon. 80° W. Forms the boundary between Ontario and Quebec, and enters the St. Lawrence about 25 miles above Montreal. (Pls. iii. and x.) 26, 31, 37, 92, 97, 124, 127.

PACIFIC. (Mar del Sur.) The largest division of water on the surface of the globe, extends from the Arctic to the Antarctic Circle, over 133 degrees of latitude, and from the W. coast of America to Australia, nearly 160 degrees of longitude. Area, 70,000,000 square miles. 95, 132, 134, 138.

PALOS. Seaport town of Spain. The starting point of Columbus in his voyage of discovery across the Atlantic. 12, 129, 131.

PANAMA. See Isthmus of Panama.

PANUCO, or Montezuma River. A river flowing into the Gulf of Mexico. 18, 133, 134, 136.

PARAGUAY. Republic on the E. coast of S. America. 157.

PARIA, GULF OF. An inlet of the Caribbean Sea, between the Island of Trinidad, and the mainland. Length, 100 miles. 130, 131.

PENNSYLVANIA. One of the so-called Middle States of the American Union. (Pl. iii.) 24, 28, 35, 43, 47, 51, 55, 62, 74, 96, 141, 156, 160, 162, 173, 174.

PENOBSCOT RIVER. Rises in Somerset Co. Maine, and flows into Penobscot Bay. Length about 300 miles. 139, 141.

PENSACOLA BAY, Florida, extending from the Gulf of Mexico into Santa Rosa Co. 152.

PERU. Republican State of South America. 30, 135, 136, 137, 138, 157, 160.

PERUANA. Early name for South America. See also Mexicana. 7.

PHILADELPHIA. Capital of Pennsylvania; on the Delaware river. (Pl. iii.) 63, 76, 102, 141, 165, 171, 173, 175.

PHILIPPINE ISLES. A large and important group of the Malay Archipelago, forming its N. division. There are about 1,200 islands in all. They were discovered by Magellan in 1521. 89, 134.

PILLARS OF HERCULES. Calpe (Ceuta) and Abyla (Gibraltar). 5.

PITTSBURG. Cap. of Alleghany Co., Pa. Originally Fort Duquesne, afterwards Fort Pitt. 44, 76, 80, 143.

POINT LEVI, on the South shore of the St. Lawrence, opposite Quebec. (Pl. iv.) 79, 80, 85.

POINTE AUX TREMBLES, on the N. shore of the St. Lawrence, 19 miles above Quebec. (Pl. x.) 86.

PORT ROYAL. See Annapolis.

PORT ST. JULIAN, on the East coast of Patagonia. 134.

PORTO RICO. (Borriquen or S. Juan Baptistae.) One of the Spanish West India Islands. 90 miles long, and 36 miles broad. 132, 157.

PORTO SEGURO, Brazil, at the mouth of the Buranhen River. 131.

POWHATAN, RIVER. Indian name for James River. 24.

PRAIRIE DE LA MADELEINE, on the East bank of the St. Lawrence, a little below Montreal. (Pls. ix. and x.) 115, 116.

PRESQU'ISLE. On south side of Lake Erie, opposite the city of Erie. 44, 76, 77, 81, 95, 142, 144.

PROVIDENCE. Capital of Rhode Island, situated round a small lake called "The Cove." (Pl. iii.) 26, 140.

PUERTO DEL PICO, on the Gulf of Venezuela. 17.

QUEBEC, City of, situated on the left bank of the St. Lawrence, about 400 miles from its mouth. First visited by Jacques Cartier in 1535. It then consisted of an Indian village called Stadacona. (Pls. iii., iv., and x.) 18, 24, 26, 27, 44, 48, 58, 64, 69, 70, 78, 79, 80, 83, 84, 85, 86, 91, 92, 115, 122, 123, 124, 139, 140, 142, 143, 144, 165, 172, 174.

QUITO. Capital of the Republic of Ecuador, South America. 135.

RALEIGH. Chesapeake Bay. 21.

RAPIDE DU COTEAU DES CEDRES, between Lakes St. Louis and St. Francis on the St. Lawrence Pl. x. 125.

RAPIDE DU COTEAU DE LAC ST. FRANCOIS. On the St. Lawrence, at the outlet of Lake St. Fran^cois (Pl. x.) 125.

RAPIDE PLAT, in the St. Lawrence, a few miles below La Galette. (Pl. x.) 125.

RAYSTOWN (Bedford) Pennsylvania. On the Raystown Branch of the Juniata River (Pl. iii.) 74, 75.

RENSSELAERSWICK. Early Dutch settlement on the Hudson, extending from the mouth of the Mohawk to below Fort Orange. 92, 107.

REPENTIGNY, on the St. Lawrence, 18 miles N.E. of Montreal. (Pl. x.) 86.

RHODE ISLAND. One of the New England States of the American Union. Takes its name from a small Island in Narragansett Bay. (Pl. iii). 26, 140, 173.

RICHELIEU, IROQUOIS, CHAMBLAY, SOREL, or ST JOHN'S RIVER, Quebec, leaves Lake Champlain at its N. extremity, and enters the River St Lawrence at Lake St Peter; about 80 miles long. (Pls. iii., vi. and x). 26, 86, 92, 97, 114, 115, 116, 144.

RIO DE JANEIRO. Cap. of Brazil, now the largest and most important town of S. America. 134.

RIO DE LA PLATA (Silver River). Mar Dulce. One of the great rivers of S. America, formed by the junction of the Paraná and Uruguay Rivers, empties itself into the Atlantic Ocean. 132, 134.

RIO GRANDE DEL NORTE, or, Rio Bravo del Norte, rises in the S.W. of Colorado, and enters the Gulf of Mexico at the S. extremity of Texas, about Lat. 26° N. Length about 1,800 miles. 135.

RIO IROOISIENSI. See River Richelieu. 92.

RIO MARAÑON. See River Amazon.

RIVER OF MAY (St John's River), Florida. 19, 137.

RIVER OF THE IROQUOIS. See St. Lawrence River.

RIVER ST JOHN. See River Richelieu.

RIVIÈRE ST CROIX. A river flowing into the Bay of Fundy. 25, 139, 140.

RIVIÈRE D'ORANGE. See Wood Creek (Champlain).

RIVIÈRE LA COLLE, flowing into the Richelieu River, at its outlet from Lake Champlain. (Pl. vi.) 114.

RIVIER VAN SICCAHANIS. The Connecticut River.

RIVIERE VANDEN VORST MAURITIUS. See Hudson River.

ROATAN. One of the Bay Islands, Caribbean Sea. 131.

ROANOAKE, Virginia. 21, 138.

ROYAL BLOK HOUSE, Wood Creek, Oneida. (Pls. ii., iii., and viii.). 119.

RYNARDS. On the Mohawk River, eight miles west of Herkimer. 98.

SABLE ISLAND. Small island off Nova Scotia, lying 90 miles S.E. of Cape Canso. 17, 133, 138, 156.

SACKETT'S HARBOUR (Niaoure Bay) L. Ontario, at the mouth of Black River. (Pl. iii.). 60, 126.

SAGUENAY. A Province of New France. 18, 136.

SAGUENAY RIVER. A tributary of the St. Lawrence, which it enters 120 miles N.E. of Quebec. Length, 100 miles. 91, 138.

ST. AUGUSTINE, near Quebec. 85.

ST. AUGUSTINE, Florida. See San Augustin.

ST. CHARLES RIVER. Rises in Lake St. Charles, 12 miles N.N.W. of Quebec, and flows into the St. Lawrence at that city. (Pls. iv. and x.). 83, 85, 93.

SAINTE FOY. On the north bank of the St. Lawrence, 4 miles south west of Quebec. (Pl. x.). 85.

ST. FRANCIS. On Lake St. Peter, at the mouth of the River St. Francis. 82.

ST. JOHN DE ULLOA (San Juan de Ulloa). A little N.E. of Vera Cruz, Mexico. 133, 137.

ST. JOHN'S. Capital of Newfoundland, near the extremity of the eastermost of the peninsulas, which project from the E. portion of the Island. 89.

ST. JOHN. On R. Richelieu. 27 miles S.E. of Montreal. (Pls. iii. and vi.). 62, 86, 174.

ST. JOHN, HARBOUR OF. On the Island of St. John in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, off the N.E. coast of Nova Scotia. 18, 136, 156, 172.

ST. JOHN'S RIVER (River of May), Florida. 19, 137.

ST. JOHN'S RIVER, Nova Scotia, flowing into the Bay of Fundy. 55.

ST. LAWRENCE, GULF OF. 16, 17, 41, 132, 135, 148.

ST. LAWRENCE RIVER. One of the largest rivers of North America, flows from Lake Ontario, in a N.E. direction, forming in a part of its course the boundary between New York and Canada, finally falls into the Gulf of St. Lawrence by a broad estuary. It has received different names in different parts of its course; between Lakes Superior and Huron it is called the St. Mary; between Lakes Huron and Erie, the St. Clair and Detroit; between Lakes Erie and Ontario, the Niagara; and from Lake Ontario to the sea, the St. Lawrence. Its length, including the chain of lakes, is estimated at 2,200 miles. 17, 18, 24, 25, 28, 30, 41, 42, 43, 58, 67, 73, 78, 81, 82, 85, 86, 87, 90, 91, 93, 95, 96, 115, 121, 123, 124, 126, 127, 135, 136, 138, 140, 144, 147, 170, 171, 172, 174.

ST. MALO. Seaport of Ille-et-Vilaine, France. Birth-place of Jacques Cartier. 17, 18, 135, 136, 139.

ST. PETER'S LAKE, or ST. PIERRE LAC, in the St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Quebec. (See also Lake St. Pierre.) (Pl. x.) 93.

ST. PIERRE, Island of, off the S. coast of Newfoundland, on which the French had certain rights. 148, 153, 157.

ST. SAUVEUR. On Mount Desert Isle, Maine. 98, 139.

ST. VINCENT. One of the West India Islands, 100 miles W. of Barbadoes. Length 17 miles, breadth about 10 miles. 88, 149, 156.

ST. AUGUSTIN } Florida. On Matanzas Sound, two miles from the Atlantic Ocean.
ST. AUGUSTINE } 19, 137, 152.

ST. DOMINGO. Called Santo Domingo, Saint Domingo, or the Dominican Republic, a State of the West Indies, occupying the eastern and larger part of the island of Hayti, it being more than twice as large as the republic of Hayti. First settled by the Spaniards under Columbus in 1492, at a place called Isabela, and became an important Spanish colony. The Spanish yoke was thrown off in 1821. See Hispaniola. 8, 130, 134, 157.

SANDUSKY. On L. Erie and the Sandusky River. 43, 95, 142.

SANDY HOOK. A narrow, sandy peninsula of Monmouth Co. N.Y., extending northward. About 16 miles S. of New York City. 174.

ST. FRANCISCO. Capital of California, on the W. shore of San Francisco Bay. 137.

ST. JOAN. A large island, first discovered by John Cabot in his voyage of 1497, probably Prince Edward Island. 14.

ST. JUAN BAPTISTA. See Porto Rico.

ST. JUAN DE ULLOA. See St. John de Ulloa.

SAN SALVADOR (Watling Island). Name given by Columbus to one of the Bahamas, the first land seen by him in the New World. 12, 130.

S. SEBASTIEN (San Sebastian de los Reyes), Venezuela, 50 miles S.S.W. of Caracas. 132.

SANTA LUCIA. One of the West India Islands, Windward Group. Length 27 miles, greatest breadth 14 miles. 88, 149, 153.

SANTA MARIA DE LA ANTIGUA DE DARIEN. On the Isthmus of Darien. 132.

SANTA MARIA DE GUADELOUPE. See Guadeloupe.

SANTA MARIA DE LA CONCEPCION. See Conception.

SANTATY. Iroquois name for the Hudson River, *q.v.*

SANTEE RIVER, S.C., formed by the Congaree and Wateree Rivers, which unite at the S.E. extremity of Richmond Co., empties itself into the Atlantic, length about 150 miles. 134.

SANTIAGO DE CHILI. Capital of Chili, on the Ma pocha River, 90 miles E.S.E. of Valparaiso 135.

SANTIAGO DE CUBA, the second most important town on the Island, and formerly the capital; on the Santiago River. 133.

SAOMETE. Isabela or Long Island, one of the Bahamas. 130.

SARATOGA, at the mouth of Fish Creek on the Hudson River, about 12 miles east of Saratoga Springs. 50, 59, 143.

SARATOGA LAKE, N.Y., about 5 miles S.E. of Saratoga Springs. Length about 7 miles, breadth 2 miles. Its outlet is Fish Creek, which enters the Hudson River. 112.

SARATOGA SPRINGS, Saratoga Co. N.Y. 112.

SAUT DU TROU. Rapids of the St. Lawrence, a little above Lake St. Louis. (Pl. x.) 124.

SAVANNAH RIVER, S.C., rises in the N. frontier of S.C., and enters the Atlantic at Savannah City. Length about 450 miles. 136.

SCHENECTADY or CORLEAR, on the south bank of the Mohawk River, 17 miles N.W. of Albany. 40, 53, 92, 108, 114, 116, 117, 118, 142, 143.

SCHOHARIE RIVER, N.Y., rises in the Catskill Mountains, and enters the Mohawk 5 miles E. of Fonda. Length about 100 miles. 118.

SCHUYLERSVILLE, Saratoga Co. N.Y. on the Hudson River, at the mouth of Fish Creek, and 34 miles N.E. of Albany. 112.

SENECA, LAKE, New York, a long lake which extends from Watkins northward to Geneva. Length 36 miles, breadth 2 miles. (Pl. iii.) 30.

SENECA River, N.Y. is formed by the junction of the Clyde River, and the outlet of Cayuga Lake. Unites with the Oneida River to form the Oswego River. (Pl. viii.) 120.

SHATEMUC. Mohican name for the Hudson R. *q.v.*

SHIPPENSBURG, Cumberland Co. Pa. 22 miles W.S.W. of Carlisle. 13.

SICCAHANIS, RIVIER VAN. See Connecticut River.

SODUS Bay, L. Ontario. Length about 5 miles. (Pl. iii.) 48, 120.

SOPUS or SOPERS. See AESOPUS.

SOREL. Village on the right bank of the Richelieu River, 45 miles N.E. of Montreal. (Pl. x.) 86, 115.

SOREL RIVER. See Richelieu River.

SOUTH BAY, Lake Champlain. (Pls. vi., vii. and viii.) 112, 114.

SOUTH HERO (Grande Isle). An island in Lake Champlain, about 14 miles N.W. of Burlington. 114.

SOUTH RIVER. See Delaware R.

STADAONE (Quebec). The Indian village discovered by Cartier, on the site of which Quebec now stands. 26.

STAATENLAND or STATEN ISLAND. An island of Tierra del Fuego. Length 45 miles. 139.

STILLWATER, Saratoga Co., N.Y., on the west bank of the Hudson River. (Pls. ii., iii. and vi.) 50, 59, 111.

STONE ARABIA, on the river Caroge, on the N. side of the Mohawk. (Pls. ii., iii. and viii.) 118.

STON RABY. See Stone Arabia.

STRAITS of BELLE ISLE. The most northern of the two channels which connect the Gulf of St. Lawrence with the Atlantic Ocean. It separates Labrador from Newfoundland, and is about 12 miles wide. 131, 135.

STRATT of ELEVEN THOUSAND VIRGINS, name first given to the Straits of Magellan. 134.

SUPERIOR, LAKE, bounded on the N. and E. by Canada, on the S. by Michigan and Wisconsin, and on the N.W. by Minnesota. It is the largest body of fresh water on the globe. Length 400 miles, greatest width 160 miles. 121.

SWEGAGE or La Présentation (now Ogdensburg) on the St. Lawrence, at the mouth of the Oswegatchie, 250 miles N.N.W. of Albany. (Pls. ii., iii.) 42, 87, 125, 142.

TADOUSSAC. At the East entrance of the Saguenay River, 5 miles above its confluence with the St. Lawrence. One of the chief French fur trading posts. (Pl. iii.) 43, 91, 138.

TAWALSONTHA CREEK (Norman's Kill) Hudson R., a little below Albany. (Pl. vi.) 106.

TAWASSUNSHEE, on the banks of Tawalsontha Creek (Norman's Kill) Hudson R., the Dutch built a fort here, 1618. 106.

TECHEROQUEN, L. See Oneida L.

TEK-YA-DOUGH-NIGARIGEE = two points opposite to one another. The Indian name for Crown Point. 115.

TERRA de VERZINO (Land of Redwood) Brazil. 134.

THREE RIVERS, Oneida, at the conjunction of the rivers Oneida and Seneca. (Pl. ii., iii. and viii.) 120.

THREE RIVERS (Les Trois Rivières), St. Lawrence. (Pls. iii. and x.) See Les Trois Rivières.

THREE RIVERS. See Ticonderoga.

TICONDEROGA, TICONTROGA, or CHEONDEROGA (Three Rivers). On Lake Champlain, and a little north of the river which unites Lake George to Lake Champlain. Called by the French Fort Carillon from the chiming sound of the flowing water thereby. (Pls. ii., iii., vi. and vii.) 50, 53, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 65, 69, 70, 71, 73, 77, 78, 79, 80, 82, 114, 144.

TORONTO (at one time called York) capital of Ontario, on the N.W. shore of Lake Ontario. 43, 5¹, 121, 126.

TRINIDAD. One of the West Indian Islands, Windward Group. Length 50 miles, average breadth 30 miles. 130, 157.

ULSTER CO. S.E. part of New York State. Area about 1,150 square miles. 102, 106.

URABA, GULF OF. Old name for the Gulf of Darien. 132.

UTILA. One of the Bay Islands, Caribbean Sea. 131.

VANCOUVER'S ISLAND, off the W. Coast of Canada, province of British Columbia. Length 278 miles, greatest breadth 65 miles. 138.

VENANGO (F. Machault), on Venango or French Creek, Pa. 44, 45, 62, 76, 77, 81, 95, 142, 144.

VEÑEZUELA (Little Venice). Now a Republic occupying the North East portion of South America, between Lat. $1^{\circ} 8'$ and $12^{\circ} 16'$ N. and Lon. $53^{\circ} 15'$ and $73^{\circ} 17'$ W. 13, 15, 131, 132.

VERA CRUZ, VILLA RICA DE. On the S.W. shore of the Gulf of Mexico, 185 miles E. of Mexico. 133.

VERMONT. One of the New England States of the American Union. 29, 141.

VILLE MARIE DE MONTREAL. See Montreal.

VINLAND. Early Scandinavian settlement in Massachusetts. 6, 129.

VIRESCHE RIVER. See Connecticut River.

VIRGINIA. An Atlantic State of the American Union, one of the original thirteen States. "The Old Dominion." 6, 21, 22, 24, 25, 38, 41, 43, 44, 47, 55, 62, 92, 98, 101, 129, 134, 138, 139, 140, 142, 156, 160, 161, 171, 173.

WATLING ISLAND (Guanahani or San Salvador), one of the Bahamas. The first land in the New World seen by Columbus. 12, 130.

WEST CANADA CREEK, rises in Hamilton Co. N.Y., and flows into the Mohawk at Herkimer. 119.

WEST INDIES, Antilles, or Columbian Archipelago. An extensive system of Islands in the Atlantic Ocean, stretching from the N.E. of Cape Florida, to the Gulf of Paria. 24, 88, 102, 154, 156, 167, 158, 159, 160, 163, 172, 174, 175.

WHITEHALL, Washington Co. N.Y., at the head of Lake Champlain, 76 miles N.E. of Albany. 114.

WILLIAMSBURG, Capital of James City Co., Va., and 3 miles N. of the James River. It was the seat of the Royal Government prior to the Revolution, and is the oldest incorporated town in the State. (Pl. iii). 45.

WILLS CREEK (Cumberland), Capital of Alleghany Co., Md. on the Potomac. (Pl. iii). 45, 46.

WOLFE'S COVE, on the River St. Lawrence, a little above the town of Quebec, and at the foot of the Heights of Abraham. 82.

WOOD CREEK, L. Champlain, flows from the South West and empties itself into the South branch of the Lake. (Pls. vi, vii, and viii). 51, 96, 104, 112, 114.

WOOD CREEK, L. Oneida. (Pl. viii). 53, 57, 58, 60, 119.

YAMAYE. See Jamaica.

YOUGHIOGENY RIVER, rises in Virginia, and runs northward through Maryland into Pennsylvania, and flows into the Mononghela River after a course of about 150 miles. 46, 50.

YUCATAN, sometimes called Merida, a Peninsular State of Mexico. 132, 133, 169.

ZIPANGU, old name for Japan. 9, 68.

ZUYDE R. See Delaware R.

